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ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF TRUST  
WITHIN ORGANIZATIONS

by

Kyle Ristig, B.S., M.B.A., M.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Business Administration

COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS  
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

May 2004

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by Kyle G. Ristig  
entitled Antecedents and Consequences of Trust Within Organizations

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation was to empirically investigate the antecedents and consequences of trust within organizations. Specifically, trustworthiness and perceived organizational support were examined as antecedents of trust, and organizational commitment, voice behavior, and withdrawal cognitions were examined as direct or indirect consequences of trust. The peripheral trait of proactive personality was also examined with regard to its direct relationship with voice, as well as the extent to which it moderates the relationship between trust and voice behavior.

The sample frame consisted of employees and supervisors from a firearms distributor located in the southern United States. A self-report questionnaire was distributed to employees and a second survey instrument was distributed to supervisors to evaluate their employees. This second source of information would help alleviate common method variance. A total of 105 matched supervisor and employee evaluations were received, providing a response rate of 82 percent.

Results indicate both perceived organizational support and trustworthiness are positively related to trust. Based upon a usefulness analysis, trustworthiness accounted for a greater amount of incremental variance in trust than perceived organizational support. The hypotheses regarding statistically significant relationships between trust and voice and proactive personality and voice were not supported. Organizational commitment was not found to have a mediating effect on the trust and voice

relationship, and proactive personality was not found to moderate the relationship between voice and trust. Trust was found to be positively related to organizational commitment as hypothesized, and trust partially mediated the relationships between POS and organizational commitment, and partially mediated the relationship between trustworthiness and organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was not found to be related to voice. Higher levels of organizational commitment did, however, lead to lower levels of withdrawal cognitions.

The managerial and theoretical implications of the findings are discussed as well as contributions to the existing literature. Finally, suggestions for future research are presented.

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Author



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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	xii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Definitions of Study Variables .....	3
Perceived Organizational Support.....	3
Trustworthiness .....	3
Ability.....	4
Benevolence .....	4
Integrity .....	4
Trust.....	4
Organizational Commitment .....	5
Withdrawal Cognitions.....	5
Voice.....	6
Proactive Personality .....	6
The Importance of Trust.....	6
Statement of the Problem .....	9
Objectives of the Study .....	10
Hypotheses .....	11
Research Methodology .....	11
Sample Methodology.....	12
Data Collection Procedures .....	12
Statistical Techniques .....	12
Contributions of the Study.....	12
Overview of the Study.....	14
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES.....	15
Trust .....	17
Evolution of Trust .....	17
Propensity to Trust .....	21
Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman's Model of Trust .....	21
Trustworthiness .....	23
Relationships among Trust, Ability, Benevolence, and Integrity .....	25



McAllister's Model of Trust .....	26
Cognition-Based Trust .....	27
Affect-Based Trust .....	27
Relationship of Affect-Based Trust and Cognition-Based Trust .....	27
Comparison of McAllister's (1995) and Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) Models .....	29
Antecedents of Trust .....	30
Behavioral Interaction .....	30
Social Exchange .....	31
Bases of Trust .....	32
Perceived Organizational Support .....	33
Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support .....	33
Communication .....	35
Discretion of the Organization .....	36
Pay and Pay Systems .....	37
Procedural and Distributive Justice .....	37
Other Factors .....	38
Correlates of Perceived Organizational Support .....	40
Consequences of Perceived Organizational Support .....	40
Communication .....	41
Organizational Citizenship Behavior .....	41
Performance .....	43
Job Satisfaction .....	44
Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognitions .....	44
Other Consequential Factors .....	45
The Relationship Between Trust and Perceived Organizational Support .....	48
The Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Support and Trustworthiness .....	50
Consequences of Trust .....	51
Proactive Personality .....	55
Voice .....	56
The Relationship Between Voice and Trust .....	58
The Relationship Between Voice and Proactive Personality .....	59
The Moderating Role of Proactive Personality .....	60
Organizational Commitment .....	60
Antecedents of Organizational Commitment .....	61

The Relationship Between Trust and Organizational Commitment .....	64
Correlates of Organizational Commitment .....	65
Consequences of Organizational Commitment .....	66
The Relationship Between Voice and Organizational Commitment .....	67
Withdrawal Cognition .....	68
The Relationship Between Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognition .....	69
Chapter Summary .....	70
 CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	71
Operationalization of Variables .....	71
Trust .....	71
Ability .....	72
Benevolence .....	74
Integrity .....	75
Trust .....	75
Perceived Organizational Support .....	76
Organizational Commitment .....	78
Withdrawal Cognition .....	80
Voice .....	81
Proactive Personality Scale .....	83
Employee Research Instrument .....	84
Supervisor Research Instrument .....	85
Sample Methodology .....	85
Data Collection Procedures .....	85
Statistical Techniques .....	85
Chapter Summary .....	86
 CHAPTER 4 PRESENTATION OF DATA ANALYSIS .....	87
Characteristics of the Sample .....	87
Potential Non-Response Error .....	89
Reliability of Scales .....	91
Correlations of Study Variables .....	91
Adequacy of the Measurement Model .....	94
Results of the Regression Analysis .....	95
Chapter Summary .....	106

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS .....	107
Research Findings .....	107
Antecedents of Trust .....	107
Trust, Voice, and Proactive Personality .....	109
Trust, Voice, and Organizational Commitment .....	110
Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognition .....	112
Trustworthiness, Trust, and Organizational Commitment .....	113
Managerial Implications .....	113
Limitations of the Study .....	115
Contributions of the Study .....	116
Suggestions for Future Research .....	117
APPENDICES .....	
APPENDIX A SUPERVISOR COVER LETTER .....	119
APPENDIX B EMPLOYEE COVER LETTER .....	121
APPENDIX C EMPLOYEE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT .....	123
APPENDIX D SUPERVISOR RESEARCH INSTRUMENT .....	127
REFERENCES .....	132

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 2.1. ....	18
Definitions of Trust	
TABLE 2.2. ....	34
Factors Affecting Perceived Organizational Support	
TABLE 2.3. ....	42
Consequences of Perceived Organizational Support	
TABLE 2.4. ....	52
Consequences of Trust	
TABLE 3.1. ....	73
Trust	
TABLE 3.2. ....	77
Survey of Perceived Organizational Support	
TABLE 3.3. ....	78
Reliability Coefficients for Short Versions of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support	
TABLE 3.4. ....	80
Affective Scale for Organizational Commitment	
TABLE 3.5. ....	81
Withdrawal Cognition	
TABLE 3.6. ....	82
Voice	
TABLE 3.7. ....	84
Proactive Personality Scale	

TABLE 4.1 .....	89
Sample Characteristics	
TABLE 4.2 .....	90
Comparison of Late and Early Respondents on Study and Demographic Variables	
TABLE 4.3 .....	92
Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlation Coefficients	
TABLE 4.4 .....	94
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results	
TABLE 4.5 .....	96
Results of Regression Analysis for Trust Hypothesis 1	
TABLE 4.6 .....	97
Results of Regression Analysis for Trust Hypothesis 2	
TABLE 4.7 .....	99
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice Hypothesis 3	
TABLE 4.8 .....	100
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice Hypothesis 4a	
TABLE 4.9 .....	101
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice Hypothesis 4b	
TABLE 4.10. ....	101
Results of Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment Hypothesis 5	
TABLE 4.11 .....	103
Results of Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment	
TABLE 4.12 .....	103
Results of Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment	
TABLE 4.13 .....	104
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice Hypothesis 6	
TABLE 4.14 .....	105
Results of Regression Analysis for Withdrawal Cognition – Hypothesis 7	

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1.1 .....	2
Theoretical Framework	
FIGURE 2.1 .....	16
Research Framework	
FIGURE 2.2 .....	22
Model of Trust	

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

This dissertation empirically investigates the relationships among perceived organizational support, trustworthiness, trust, organizational commitment, voice, proactive personality, and withdrawal cognition. The theoretical model is shown in Figure 1.1. Trust, the focal variable in this dissertation, is a willingness to take risks or be vulnerable to the actions of another party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). The trustee is expected to engage in actions that have meaning to the trustor without the trustor's ability to affect such actions (Mayer et al. 1995). It is hypothesized in this dissertation that perceived organizational support and trustworthiness lead to increased levels of trust in the organization. Trust is thought to be particularly important in today's organizations because when trust is relatively high, employees are more committed to authorities and the institutions that the authorities represent (Brockner, Seigel, Daly, & Martin, 1997). Support for organizational authorities may be manifested in a variety of ways, including commitment to the organization characterized by exertion of effort on behalf of the organization and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Brockner et al. 1997; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).



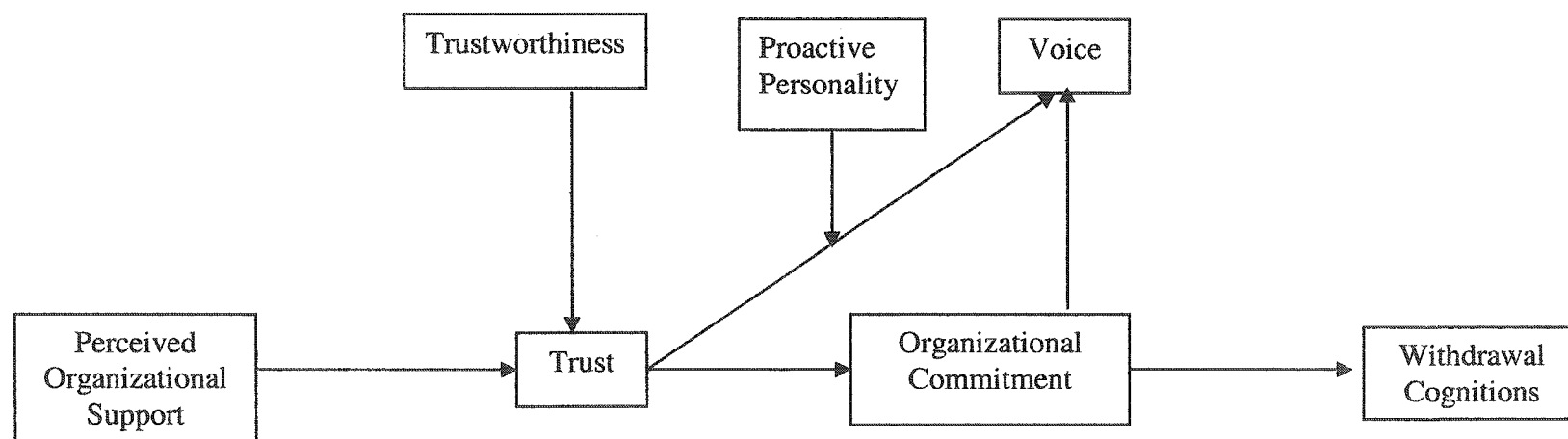


FIGURE 1.1  
Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents definitions of the study variables and the importance of trust in the workplace. Following this discussion, the chapter presents the statement of the problem, and objectives of the study. Finally, the chapter concludes with the potential contributions of the study.

### Definitions of Study Variables

To provide a common understanding of the terms used in this dissertation, the following section provides definitions of the major study variables. When multiple definitions for terms exist, the definition utilized in the dissertation is identified.

#### Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the belief that employees form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). Perceived organizational support will be affected by an employer's treatment of the employee and, in turn, that employee will form beliefs concerning the organization's motives underlying the treatment (Eisenberger et al. 1986)

#### Trustworthiness

Three characteristics of a trustee comprise trustworthiness. They are ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al. 1995). The three factors are separate but are related and each varies along a continuum (Mayer et al. 1995) and any developments or incidents that cause the reappraisal of the factors will affect trustworthiness (Mayer & Davis, 1999).

Ability. Ability is the level of relevant skills and competencies that allow the trustee to have influence over some specific domain (Mayer et al. 1995). This is situation specific since the trustee may be highly skilled in one domain but not in another (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000). When the trustee is perceived to have the skills necessary to make a difference for the trustor, the trustee is likely to gain additional trust (Davis et al. 2000).

Benevolence. Benevolence is the degree to which the trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor or the positive orientation of the trustee toward the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). If an employee believes his supervisor will act in his best interest, it is likely that the supervisor will gain the trust of the employee (Davis et al. 2000).

Integrity. Integrity is the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable (Mayer et al. 1995). If a supervisor is perceived to be fair, honest, and just, it is likely the employee will still trust the supervisor even if the supervisor makes a decision that is contrary to the wishes of the employee (Davis et al. 2000).

### Trust

Trust between two parties is the willingness of one of the parties, the trustor, to be vulnerable to the actions of the other party, the trustee. The willingness is based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the trustee (Mayer et al. 1995).

### Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the strength of an individual's identification and involvement with an organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) or the psychological attachment felt by the employee to an organization (Bartlett, 2001; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). It is characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al. 1974).

Affective commitment, the proxy for organizational commitment, is an individual's emotional attachment to a particular organization. Employees with strong affective commitment enjoy membership in the organization and work in that organization because "they want to" (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al. 1982).

### Withdrawal Cognitions

Mobley (1977) developed a model of the employee withdrawal process consisting of 10 stages or steps. The first step began with an evaluation of the employee's existing job and continued through the process of terminating employment or remaining with the organization. Researchers investigated a simplified model with several stages in the process, including thinking of quitting, intention to search, and intention to quit. Results supported linkages between stages with intention to quit positively and significantly related to turnover (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). An investigation of the Mobley (1977) model by Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur (1984) yielded similar results.

## Voice

Voice, or advocacy participation (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994), is a constructive and active behavior that emphasizes higher levels of performance rather than criticism of current performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). It involves speaking up and making innovative suggestions for change in spite of the disagreement of others (Erez, LePine, & Elms, 2002) and may be directed toward authorities inside or outside the managerial hierarchy (Farrell, 1983).

## Proactive Personality

Proactive personality is a relatively stable behavioral tendency toward action. Individuals with proactive personality are likely to identify and act on opportunities, take initiative and cause change in the workplace (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker & Sprigg, 1999). A proactive personality is indicative of one who is unencumbered by situational forces and creates change within the organization (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Individuals who are highly proactive are likely to take action when needed and remain steadfast in their conviction to alter their environment. Research indicates employees with proactive personalities create situations consistent with high on-the-job performance resulting in higher levels of job success (Crant, 1995; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999).

## The Importance of Trust

Trust is good, desirable, and even essential for organizations to function properly (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996; Shaw, 1997). Trust promotes cooperation, especially in large organizations (La Porta, Lopez-De-Silanes, Shleifer, & Vishny, 1997) and increases the levels of interpersonal helping and coordination

enhancing behavior (McAllister, 1995). For organizational members, trust relationships enhance the quality of work life, providing needed support, pleasure, meaning, and purpose (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Lobel, Quinn, St. Clair, & Warfield, 1994)

Because trust is an important determinant of successful relationships (Scott & Gable, 1997), it also plays a positive role in managerial problem solving and group accomplishment. For example, trust in the organization is considered to be one of the most important components of collective bargaining and labor relations (Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975). In addition to being the central prerequisite of cooperation (Deutsch, 1962), organizational trust appears to be positively related to organizational commitment and individual performance (Golembiewski & McConkie, 1975). Trust has been associated with perceptions of fairness and accuracy in performance evaluations (Fulk, Brief, & Barr, 1985); as well as playing an important role in empowerment (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 1996)--both of which contribute to lower levels of conflict and increased worker performance.

Trust is also thought to be an important factor in organizational success to the extent that the lack of trust discourages innovation (Knack & Keefer, 1997) and increases the need for independent inspection and audits (Handy, 1995). If entrepreneurs must devote more time to monitoring possible malfeasance by partners, employees, and suppliers, they have less time to devote to innovation in new products or processes. With higher levels of trust, the need for monitoring, controls, and hierarchical contracts is reduced (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Ouchi, 1979). This extends

to societies as well, since those societies characterized by high levels of trust are also less dependent on formal institutions to enforce agreements (Knack & Keefer, 1997).

Trusting societies not only have stronger incentives to innovate and to accumulate physical capital, but are also likely to have higher returns on the accumulation of human capital (Knack & Keefer, 1997). Trusting societies may provide easier access to credit for the poor, resulting in higher participation in secondary education. Also, trust may be linked to higher levels of government institutional performance, including public education. Government officials in societies with higher trust may be perceived as more trustworthy, and their policy pronouncements as being more credible. To the extent that this is true, trust also triggers greater investment and other economic activity (Knack & Keefer, 1997).

Current trends in both workforce composition and the organization of the workplace in the United States suggest that the importance of trust is likely to increase during the coming years (Mayer et al. 1995). One important trend in workforce composition is the increase in diversity. A diverse workforce is less able to rely on interpersonal similarity and common background and experience to contribute to mutual attraction and enhance the willingness to work together. Therefore, the development of mutual trust is critical if diverse employees are to work together effectively (Mayer et al. 1995) and develop synergistic team relationships (Jones & George, 1998). These synergistic team relations lead to superior performance benefits, such as the development of unique organizational capabilities and extra-role behaviors that can give an organization a competitive advantage (Jones & George, 1998). In

short, increased diversity in the workplace, power sharing, and the implementation of organizational workteams all serve to increase the importance of trust in organizations.

### Statement of the Problem

Even though trust promotes cooperation and is essential for organizations (Meyerson et al. 1996; La Porta et al. 1997; Shaw, 1997), the literature on trust has suffered due to a lack of agreement on the definition of trust as well as confusion among trust and its consequences and antecedents (Mayer et al. 1995). McAllister (1995), for example, defines trust in terms of a belief and willingness to act based on the words, actions, and decisions of another. Deutsch (1973) defines trust as a confidence that one will find what is desired from another while Handy (1995) defines trust as a confidence in someone's competence and commitment. Commonalities between definitions exist, although several different models of trust have been developed (e.g., McAllister, 1995; Mayer et al. 1995). As a result, researchers have not utilized common theoretical models while investigating the antecedents or consequences of trust. Research has shown various conceptualizations of trust to be related to antecedents such as perceived organizational support (Armstrong-Stassen, Cameron, & Horsburgh, 2001) and trustworthiness (Mayer et al. 1995), as well as outcomes such as organizational commitment (Laschinger, Finegan, & Shamian, 2001).

However, the lack of common theoretical models used in trust research has resulted in a fragmented nomological network of the determinants of trust. For example, although both POS and trustworthiness have both been found to be positively related to trust, both variables have not been examined in the same study.



This appears to be problematic because there appears to be a great deal of conceptual overlap between POS and trustworthiness. It is likely that these two variables have not been examined together in the same study due to the different theoretical frameworks that dominate the use of these constructs. Therefore, the extent to which POS and trustworthiness make unique contributions to trust are unknown.

Another problem in the trust literature is the lack of research examining behavioral outcomes of trust and the extent to which trust is directly or indirectly related to behavior. Given that the primary promise of trust theory is that trust will be positively related to engaging in risk taking in the relationship (Mayer et al. 1995), the paucity of research examining the relationship between trust and risky behavior such as innovation, creativity, and voice is disturbing. Further, although current models of trust predict that the relationship between trust and these types of behavior may be enhanced or suppressed due to individual differences that relate to propensity to engage in risk, virtually no research has examined the potential influence various risk-related dispositions may have upon the trust-behavior relationship.

### Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the dissertation is to theoretically and empirically address the previously stated shortcomings in the trust literature. This study will provide an examination of the theoretical and empirical overlap between POS and trustworthiness and the extent to which each of these two variables make unique contributions to trust. This analysis should bring some conceptual clarity to the trust antecedents literature. This study will also examine the relationship between trust and a promotive, yet risky type of behavior--voice. The study will examine the extent to which trust is directly

related to voice behavior or indirectly related to voice due to its influence upon organizational attachment. Finally, the study will examine the extent to which the relationship between trust and voice behavior is moderated by proactive personality.

Figure 1.1 depicts the relationships that will be examined in the study.

### Hypotheses

Based on existing theory and literature, hypotheses are presented that reflect the relationships between the variables under investigation.

- H1: Organizational trustworthiness will be positively related to trust in the organization.
- H2: Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support will experience high levels of trust.
- H3: Individuals who have high levels of trust toward others will express high levels of voice toward those individuals.
- H4a: Proactive personality is positively related to voice
- H4b: Proactive personality will moderate the relationship between trust and voice.
- H5: Individuals who have high levels of trust will experience more organizational commitment than other individuals.
- H6: Individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will express high levels of voice.
- H7: Individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will experience less withdrawal-related cognitions than other individuals.

### Research Methodology

The following section provides the research design used in the investigation of the hypotheses. The sample methodology, data collection procedures, and statistical techniques are presented in this section.

### Sample Methodology

The sample for this dissertation was taken from a firearms distributor operating a call center and warehousing operations located in the southern United States. The distributor employed approximately 128 persons, of which 11 operated in a supervisory capacity.

### Data Collection Procedures

One questionnaire was administered to non-supervisory employees of the organization while a second questionnaire was administered to supervisors. The employee survey consisted of demographic information and questions related to the study variables under investigation. The supervisor survey consisted of demographic information and an employee evaluation related to the employee's use of voice. Both groups received a cover letter, a copy of the questionnaire, and a pre-addressed envelope. A total of 105 matched employee and supervisor surveys were returned.

### Statistical Techniques

Reliability analysis was used to determine the internal consistency of the previously developed scales. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine Hypotheses 1-4a and 5-7, while moderated regression analysis was used to test Hypotheses 4b.

### Contributions of the Study

This dissertation makes several significant contributions to the study of trust within organizations. First, this dissertation examines the relationship between trust, voice, proactive personality, and organizational commitment. Researchers have argued

that more research is needed identifying the antecedents and consequences of voice behavior (Avery & Quinones, 2002; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). By examining these variables, this dissertation provides empirical tests of these relationships and contributes to the existing literature on voice.

The distinction between perceived organizational support and trustworthiness is noted. This study conceptually and empirically differentiates between perceived organizational support and trustworthiness. With perceived union support considered to be analogous to perceived organizational support, and encompassing two of the three components of trustworthiness, it is likely that trustworthiness and perceived organizational support will be strongly related (Fuller & Hester, 2001). Furthermore, due to the addition of the third component, ability, to trustworthiness, it seems unlikely that perceived organizational support will make a substantial contribution to the prediction of trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness. As a result, a usefulness analysis found that perceived organizational support does not contribute to the prediction of trust beyond trustworthiness.

Studies have examined various aspects of organizational commitment (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1996), trust (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Laschinger et al. 2001), perceived organizational support (e.g. Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), and voice (e.g. Batt, Colvin, & Keefe, 2002; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). This dissertation establishes an integrated framework that allows for the examination of these variables.

### Overview of the Study

Chapter 1 presents the research problem, the importance of trust in the work environment, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, and the contributions of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature on withdrawal cognitions, organizational commitment, trust, trustworthiness, perceived organizational support, voice, and proactive personality as well as hypotheses development. Chapter 3 presents the operational definitions for each variable used in the hypothesized model and a discussion of the research instrument used in the gathering of data for the survey. The chapter also provides information on the research methodology including the sample, data collection procedures, and methods of analysis. Chapter 4 presents the data analysis, and Chapter 5 provides the conclusions, limitations, and recommendations of the study.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to trust, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and withdrawal cognitions. As shown in Figure 2.1, the research framework illustrates the hypothesized relationships between the listed variables. The first section of the chapter outlines the research on trust including the evolution of trust and the propensity to trust. The next section describes and compares the Mayer et al. (1995) and the McAllister (1995) models. The third section discusses the antecedents of trust followed by the conceptualization of perceived organizational support (POS), including antecedents, correlates, and consequences of perceived organizational support. The next section discusses the role of perceived organizational support as an antecedent to trust. The consequences of trust are then outlined followed by a discussion of the conceptualization of voice and the relationship between voice and trust. The next section describes the moderating effect of proactive personality followed by organizational commitment, including its antecedents, correlates and consequences, followed by a description of the relationship between trust and organizational commitment. The relationship between voice and organizational commitment is then presented and a description of the concept

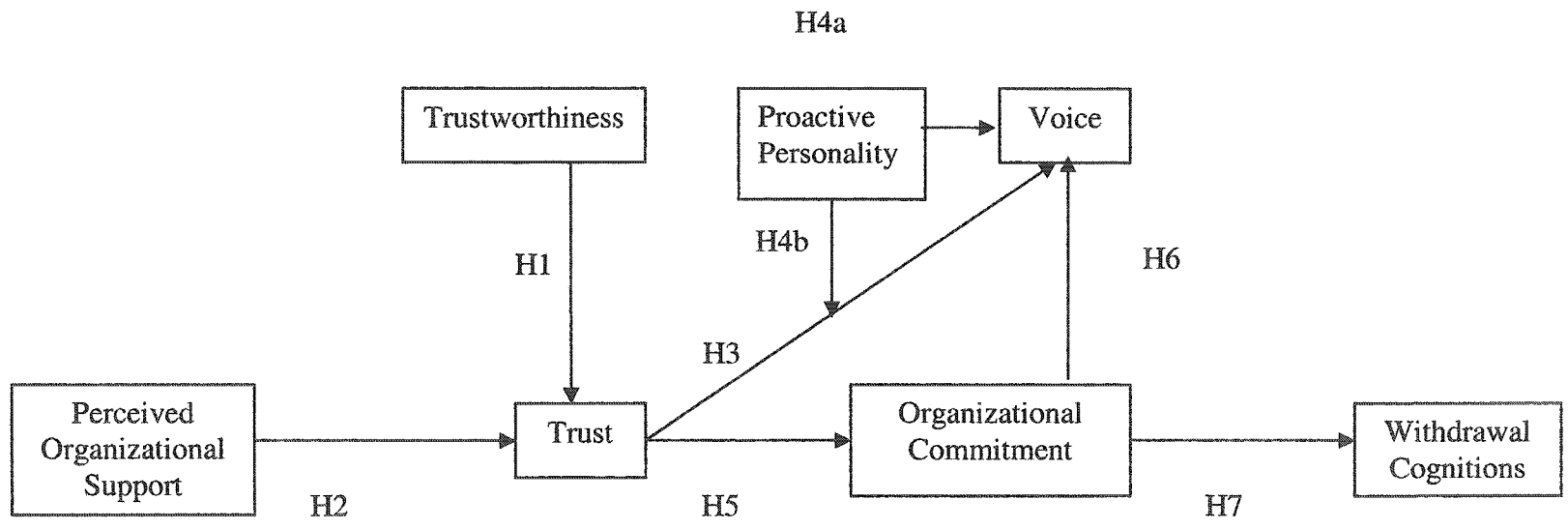


FIGURE 2.1  
Research Framework

of withdrawal cognition. The next section describes the relationship between organizational commitment and withdrawal cognitions followed by the conclusion.

## Trust

The literature on trust suffers from several problems including a lack of agreement on the definition of trust and confusion among trust and its antecedents and outcomes (Mayer et al. 1995). Table 2.1 lists the many definitions of trust. A review of these definitions reveals commonalities among them such as an action requiring confidence, reliance, or expectation, and the object of the action as a person, agent, or group. For research purposes, this dissertation will use the definition of Mayer et al. (1995, 712):

The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party.

The definition by Mayer et al. (1995) suggests that trust itself is not taking risks but is instead a willingness to take risk in the relationship by delegating authority to the employee. Using this concept, delegation to the employee is not trust, it is risk taking in the relationship (RTR), which is a result of trust (Schoorman et al. 1996).

## Evolution of Trust

Trust is a dynamic experience that evolves as a result of a number of factors, including the frequency and quality of interactions. This is illustrated by the concept of propinquity which states, in condensed form, that people are attracted to those in closest contact with them. Furthermore, those people will experience an increase



TABLE 2.1

## Definitions of Trust

Article	Definition
Deutsch 1973	A confidence that one will find what is desired from another, rather than what is feared.
Golembiewski & McConkie 1975	The expectation of some gain, balanced by something being risked. Confidence in, or a reliance on, a process, person, or event, and, based on perceptions and life experiences, an expectation about outcomes.
Rotter 1980	A generalized expectancy held by an individual that the promise, word, or statement of another individual or group can be relied upon.
Gambetta 1988	The subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action, both before he can monitor such action and in a context in which it affects his own action.
Handy 1995	A confidence in someone's competence and in his or her commitment to a goal.
Hosmer 1995	The expectation by one person, group, or firm of ethically justifiable behavior – morally correct decisions and actions based upon ethical principles of analysis – on the part of the other person, group, or firm in a joint endeavor or economic exchange.
McAllister 1995	An individual's belief in, and willingness to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another.
Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman 1995	The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party.
Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies 1998	A confident positive expectation regarding another's conduct.
Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer 1998	A psychological state comprised of the intent to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another.

in their intensity of feelings toward those in close proximity (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Newcomb, 1956). Similarly, the interaction of moods, attitudes, values, and emotions, as well as the process of mutual learning, exploration, testing, and negotiations, all lead to the development of trust (Gabarro, 1978; Jones & George, 1998).

As the level or content of behavioral interaction increases and experience with problems and positive experiences are accumulated over time, the level of trust between parties will evolve (Bartolome, 1989; Gabarro, 1978; Jones & George, 1998; Mayer et al. 1995; Remple, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). While most routine interactions of an everyday nature contribute to the evolution of trust, some events of a strong and significant nature may create discontinuity in a relationship by calling into question the trust that has already developed. These events, regardless of whether they are of a routine or exceptional nature, provide an opportunity for each person to explore and test the limits to which he or she can trust the other. If this exploration and testing does not occur, the relationship tends to evolve at a superficial level and no real basis for trust is established (Gabarro, 1978). Through these interactions and experiences, trust develops as a relationship matures, although some degree of mutuality or reciprocal loyalty is necessary (Handy, 1995; Remple et al. 1985). Without it, the individual is merely a tool who is paid to work for the organization. With reciprocal loyalty, however, employees gain rights and responsibilities giving them a sense of belonging to a community (Handy, 1995).

The development of trust within groups with a finite life span and relatively clear purpose or goal evolves somewhat differently from permanent groups. Since the

group's success typically depends on coordination of activity that must occur within a specific time frame, the lack of time may require trust to be conferred presumptively rather than through experience. Expectations, whether good or bad, are transferred from other settings thereby giving individuals a categorical framework such as roles and occupational-based stereotypes from which to evaluate others (Meyerson et al. 1996). Time constraints may not allow people to adequately evaluate their expectations of others and, as a result, the trustors may rely on knowledge of membership in various categories. This creates a shift of identity from a personal level to a group level resulting in a depersonalized trust based on categorical membership (Meyerson et al. 1996).

According to Gabarro (1978, 1979), the evolution of trust can also be viewed as comprising four stages of development. Stage 1 begins with mutual impression making and orientation. This is a relatively brief period in which the groundwork for the relationship is developed. A longer period, stage 2, continues the exploration and learning of others' expectations as well as the development of trust. This leads to the third stage of testing the limits of trust and influence. In this stage, core aspects of the relationship, such as the limits of each person's influence on the other and in what areas trust exists, become stabilized and defined. Finally, relationships that last more than eighteen months become "stable" with little subsequent change in trust (Gabarro, 1978, 1979). Simple progression through the stages of development, however, was not found to be sufficient for stable trust in a relationship. Those individuals that clarified expectations early in the relationship and discussed differences were found to have satisfying and effective relationships (Gabarro, 1978).

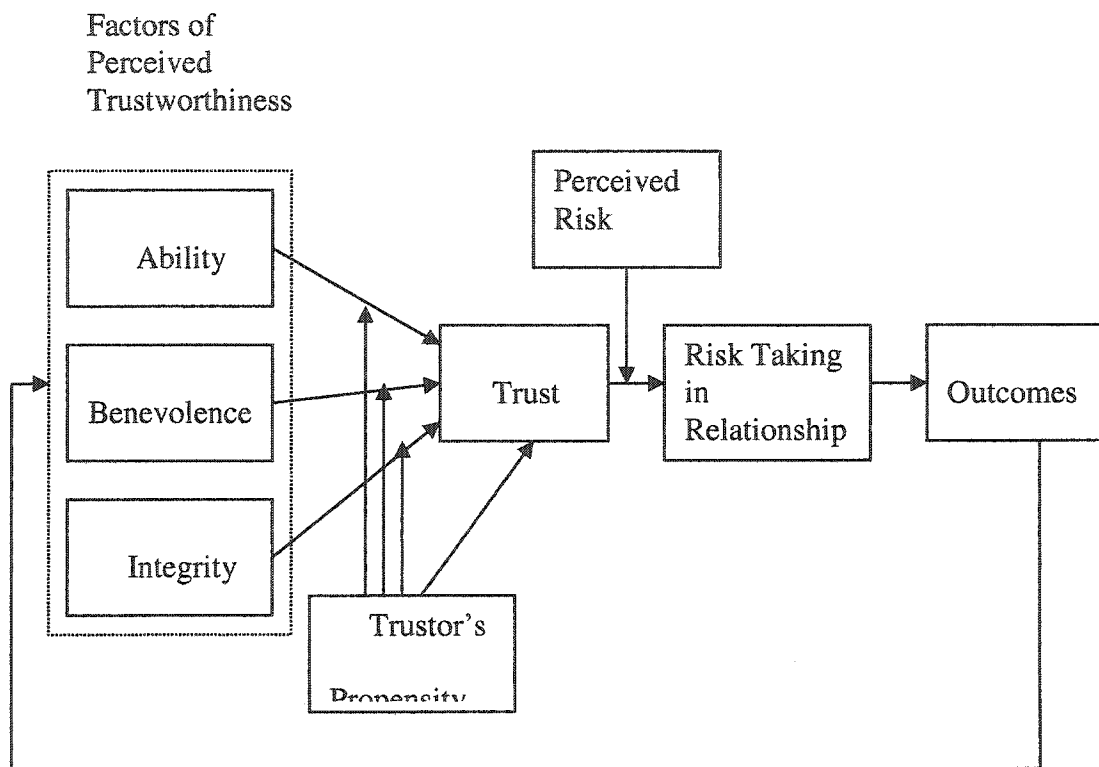
### Propensity to Trust

Some parties are more likely to trust than are others. One factor that will affect the trust one party has for another involves traits of the trustor. This propensity to trust is viewed as a trait that is stable across situations rather than situation specific and leads to a generalized expectation about the trustworthiness of others (Mayer et al. 1995). This willingness to trust others influences the degree of trust one has for another based on prior experiences and information exchanged between the two parties.

From a national perspective, trust may be affected by power distance, defined as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power is distributed unequally in institutions and organizations (Hofstede, 1980). People in small power distance cultures live in relative harmony, feel less threatened, and are more prepared to trust. Large power distance cultures, on the other hand, exist with latent hostility between the powerful and powerless. Members of these societies view others as a threat to one's power and, therefore, cannot be trusted (Hofstede, 1980).

### Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman's Model of Trust

Figure 2.2 depicts the model of trust as proposed by Mayer et al. (1995). Factors of perceived trustworthiness that affect trust are the trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity, while the trustor's propensity, or willingness to trust, affects trust and the relationship between perceived trustworthiness and trust (Mayer et al. 1995).



(Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995)

FIGURE 2.2

Model of Trust

### Trustworthiness

The outcome of trusting behavior, whether favorable or unfavorable, will influence trust indirectly through the three bases of trust typically used in literature to explain trustworthiness. Ability, benevolence, and integrity, or similar terms, have been found to be common among literature on trust and are used by Mayer et al. (1995) to describe trustworthiness. As perceived trustworthiness increases, trust will increase, and as trust increases, cooperation will increase (Williams, 2001).

Ability has been conceptualized as an important antecedent and essential element of trust either by itself (Good, 1988) or combined with other dimensions such as faith (Cook & Wall, 1980). A subordinate's trust in a leader for example, reflects, in part, the leader's ability to perform his or her task (Jones, James, & Bruni, 1975). Other theorists have discussed a similar construct related to trust – competence. The definition of trust adopted by Mishra (1996) notes that a party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party is based on the belief that the other party is, among things, competent. In the development of a content theory of trust conditions and scales to measure them, Butler (1991) found competence to be one of ten conditions of trust. Other research indicates that a subordinate's competence, integrity, and consistency is more important than loyalty and openness (Butler & Cantrell, 1984).

Trust increases when an individual is perceived to be competent. Subordinates and managers develop relationships in an organizational setting and those relationships are based on trust, where trust is defined, in part, in terms of competence (Gabarro, 1978). When subordinates perceive their supervisor as competent, they know that they can depend on the supervisor to help solve their work problems

(Sonnenburg, 1994). Relevant skills, competencies, and characteristics were found to be integral to the definition of ability (Mayer et al. 1995), while those skills, competencies, and characteristics which enable a trustee to have influence within some domain are important to the perception of trustworthiness (Schoorman et al. 1996).

Trust also has been referred to as expectations of benevolence (Solomon, 1960) and may, in part, be an attribution concerning the other party's benevolence (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). Schoorman et al. (1996, 3) and Mayer et al. (1995, 718) define benevolence as:

the extent to which the trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric motive, or the perception of a positive orientation of the trustee toward the trustor.

Trust may be initiated when the trustor has the perception that the trustee has his or her best interest at heart (Schoorman et al. 1996). Subordinates may find it difficult to trust their supervisor until they have first made a favorable assessment of the supervisor's motives (Gabarro, 1978), but with additional interactions, the trustor is able to gain insights concerning the trustee's benevolence and the impact of benevolence on trust will grow (Mayer et al. 1995).

A third trustee characteristic is integrity, which is the extent to which one party's actions reflect values acceptable to the trustor (Schoorman et al. 1996). Previous research has listed integrity or similar constructs as having an influence on trust (Schoorman et al. 1996), while integrity has been listed as one of five determinants of dyadic trust (Butler & Cantrell, 1984) and one of ten conditions of trust (Butler, 1991).

Consistency of the party's past actions, credible communications about the trustee from other parties, belief that the trustee has a strong sense of justice, and the extent to which the party's actions are congruent with his or her words all affect the degree to which the party is judged to have integrity (Mayer et al. 1995). Personal integrity requires the trustee to follow a standard and unwavering set of principles and, when faced with temptation, maintain those principles for the right reasons. If the trustor, however, does not find the set of principles acceptable, the trustee would not be considered to have integrity (McFall, 1987). A subordinate, for example, will be more likely to develop a relationship with a supervisor who displays values and attitudes that are similar to the subordinate's than with a supervisor whose values are incongruent with the values of the subordinate (Berscheid & Walster, 1969, 1978; Newcomb, 1956).

Relationships among Trust, Ability, Benevolence, and Integrity. The three factors of ability, benevolence, and integrity are separable and may vary independently, but are not necessarily unrelated to one another and could be thought of as varying along a continuum (Mayer et al. 1995). The effect of integrity on trust will be greater in the early stages of the relationship prior to the development of meaningful benevolence. Integrity by itself, however, will not create trust between two individuals. A lack of knowledge and capabilities which would be helpful to the trustee would not ensure a trusting relationship no matter what level of integrity the trustor may have. Similarly, the capabilities of the trustor does not ensure that the relationship will be a trusting one, since the trustor may or may not use the capabilities



to assist the trustee. Once the relationship between parties develops, the effect of benevolence on trust will increase (Mayer et al. 1995).

A high correlation has been found to exist between benevolence and integrity. The correlation, however, may be due to the relationship that is formed when a trustor views the trustee as having similar values leading to the perception of higher integrity. By having similar values, the trustee and trustor are more likely to develop a stronger relationship leading to perceived trustee benevolence (Schoorman et al. 1996).

Ability (e.g. Gabarro, 1978; Good, 1988), benevolence (e.g. Schoorman et al. 1996; Solomon, 1960), and integrity (e.g. Schoorman et al. 1996) have been conceptualized as antecedents to trust. Mayer et al. (1995) proposed that these three characteristics comprise the factor of trustworthiness which leads to trust. That is, to the extent that an individual believes that the organization is benevolent, competent, and has the ability to fulfill their promises and obligations, the individual is likely to trust the organization. Therefore, following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Organizational trustworthiness will be positively related to trust in the organization.

### McAllister's Model of Trust

A second model of trust (McAllister, 1995) comprises two distinct parts: cognition-based trust and affect-based trust. In cognition-based trust, trust is grounded in an individual's beliefs about another's dependability and reliability (McAllister, 1995). This trust discriminates among persons and institutions that are either trustworthy, distrusted, or unknown (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). The second part of trust, affect-based trust, consists of an emotional bond among all those who participate in the relationship (Lewis & Weigert, 1985).

Cognition-Based Trust. Trust, to some degree, involves a level of cognitive familiarity with the object of the trust. This cognitive familiarity lies somewhere between total ignorance and total knowledge. Trust will not be necessary with total knowledge since actions can be taken with complete certainty. On the other hand, there can be no reason to trust in the presence of absolute ignorance (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). For cognition-based trust, an individual's track-record and reputation for reliability, dependability, and professionalism provide the foundation for confidence in that individual (McAllister, 1997).

Affect-Based Trust. The emotional content of trust is complementary to the cognitive base of trust. This emotional component is present in all types of trust and contributes to the cognitive "platform" from which trust is established and sustained (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Affect-based trust incorporates an individual's belief in, and willingness to act on the basis of the words, actions, and decisions of others (McAllister, 1997). Affect-based trust relationships are best viewed as being communal in nature with little interest in balancing the relationship (McAllister, 1997).

Relationship of Affect-Based Trust and Cognition-Based Trust. The existence of both attitudinal and situational factors in interpersonal trust has been confirmed (Scott, 1980). The attitudinal factor appears to be made up of three components (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962). They are 1) the affective, or emotional component, 2) the cognitive component, consisting of the beliefs, and perceptions about an object, 3) the behavioral component, which involves the

tendency to respond towards a specific object based upon the affective and cognitive components. Each of the factors may vary in multiplexity and valence where multiplexity refers to the variety and number of elements making up a component and valence refers to the direction of an individual's attitude toward the object or whether the attitude is favorable or unfavorable (Krech et al. 1962). For example, the cognitive component may vary from minimal knowledge about an object to an exhaustive set of beliefs about the object. The affective component may vary from indifference to passion while the behavioral or action component may vary from a single disposition to help or harm an object to an elaborate family of dispositions toward the object.

Trust relationships can be distinguished through differences in the qualitative mix of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of trust. Trusting behavior may be motivated by cognitive, rational trust, or affective, emotional trust, or more usually, some combination of both. Excluding one or the other from the analysis of trust will likely lead to misconceptions and confuse trust with prediction or faith (Lewis & Weigert, 1985).

Even though affect-based trust and cognition-based trust exist as distinct forms of trust, it cannot be implied that affective factors do not influence cognition-based trust decisions or that affect-based trust is non-rational (McAllister, 1997). Cognition-based trust provides a foundation for affect-based trust although cognition-based trust alone is insufficient in the trust relationship. Once the trustor's expectations for dependability and reliability are met, then clear attributions concerning peer motives are possible and personal investments in trust relationships may take place (McAllister, 1997). The orderly development of cognition-based and affect-based trust

has practical significance. Conditions giving rise to the need for greater trust promote the emergence of affect-based trust in particular. High performance collaboration, for example, requires not only the dependence on others to perform consistently and reliably, but also requires personal commitments between individuals. As a result, cognition-based trust is not sufficient to sustain trust and affect-based trust becomes essential. Second, affect-based trust emerges from the conditions that promote dependence among trusted partners. Reliable and dependable co-workers are important in working relationships. The possibility of losing one of these co-workers may lead to insecurity in the working relationship creating a shift in focus from the cognitive to the affective aspect of the relationship where the concern becomes whether the co-worker has others' best interests at heart (McAllister, 1997).

#### Comparison of McAllister's (1995) and Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) Models

Trust is comprised of rational cognition-based trust and social affect-based trust (McAllister, 1995; Scott & Gable, 1997). Cognition-based trust encompasses two of Mayer et al.'s (1995) dimensions, ability and integrity, as well as competence, responsibility, credibility, reliability, and dependability (Scott & Gable, 1997). In contrast, McAllister's (1995) affect-based trust, as viewed by Scott and Gable (1997), includes Mayer et al.'s (1995) benevolence, in addition to care and concern, altruism, a sense of personal obligation, commitment, mutual respect, openness, a capacity for listening and understanding, and a belief that sentiments are reciprocated.

Similarly, Schoorman et al. (1996), note that McAllister's (1995) operationalization of affect-based trust parallels benevolence in their model, while

aspects similar to both ability and integrity are reflected in his measure of cognition-based trust. McAllister's measures of control-based monitoring and defensive behavior reflect characteristics of both trust and risk taking in relationships in Mayer et al.'s (1995) model. Although the models have similarities, for the purposes of this dissertation, the Mayer et al. (1995) model will be investigated since it is believed to be one of the most parsimonious models for examining the antecedents and consequences of trust (Tan & Tan, 2000).

### Antecedents of Trust

In their analysis of trust in leadership, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) suggest three potential antecedents of trust: attributes of the leader-follower relationship, leader actions and/or practices, and attributes of the follower. Attributes of the leader-follower relationship include interaction, or the interpersonal contact and familiarity between parties while leader actions and/or practices include social exchange, the belief that a party will reciprocate with an equal response. The follower's propensity to trust others, believed to influence individuals' trust in specific individuals, is an attribute of the follower (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Behavioral Interaction. Management practices that build trust in relationships include shared (preferably face-to-face) experiences, frequent interaction, shared information, and may include the transfer of organizational members to the partner (Scott and Gable, 1997). Trust arises out of the process of interaction and the expectation of future interactions (Axelrod, 1984; Fichman, 1997; Gulati, 1995; Zucker, 1986) and builds gradually, through a series of positive experiences such as trusting employees with important assignments, supporting their ideas, and showing

fairness in evaluating their work (Bartolome, 1989). Trust may emerge from prior contact based on the premise that through ongoing interaction, firms learn about each other and develop trust around norms of equity, or “knowledge-based” trust (Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin, 1992). There are strong cognitive and emotional bases for such trust, which are perhaps most visible among individual organization members (Lewis & Weigert, 1985).

Social Exchange. According to social exchange theory, people will support a social exchange partner in proportion to the perceived benefits provided by the partner (Blau, 1966). In the matter of trust, people give what they expect to receive and tend to get what they give. An individual’s expectations about trust will change in the direction that experience indicates and will, to a degree, be proportional to the difference between the initial expectations and actual experience (Boyle & Bonacich, 1970).

Zucker (1986) also notes the importance of past or expected exchange in describing process-based trust. Reciprocity is inherent in Mayer et al.’s (1995) suggestion that trust in another is based on the expectation that the other will perform actions of importance to the trustor, without the trustor having to monitor or control the other party (Brockner et al. 1997). Equity and equality distribution decisions are based on mutually beneficial exchange (Mannix, Neale, & Northcraft, 1995), providing a respectable basis for the development of cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1997).

Bases of Trust. Trust in a relationship develops (or fails to develop) dependent upon several factors, or bases of trust. These bases of trust provide the foundation on which trust can evolve. While studies have identified a variety of bases of trust, Mayer et al. (1995) proposes that the extent to which a party will be seen as trustworthy is a function of the individual's ability, benevolence, and integrity. Integrity, shown by one's honesty in the relationship, is a frequently mentioned basis for trust (Butler, 1991; Gabarro, 1978) and may be shaped by procedural fairness (Brockner *et al.* 1997). If the procedures used by the trustee are perceived to be procedurally fair, the trustor is less likely to monitor the trustee. Mayer et al. (1995) suggested that such issues as consistency of the party's past actions, belief that the trustee has a strong sense of justice, or the extent to which the party's actions are congruent with his or her words, all affect the degree to which the party is judged to have integrity. Managers that exhibit appropriate role modeling, defined as behavior perceived to be consistent with both the values of the manager and the goals of the organization, for example, have been found to receive greater trust and loyalty from their employees (Rich, 1997). An unwavering adherence to a strict moral code is also seen as indicative of a significant level of integrity. Furthermore, since it is also consistent with the goals of the organization, the role-modeling behavior is indicative of a manager's competence or ability (Rich, 1997).

Gabarro (1978) identified nine bases of trust including trust in the other's specific area of functional competence, interpersonal competence, trust in the other's ability to work with people, and trust in the other's overall business sense. These terms are similar to the concept of ability as proposed by Mayer et al. (1995).

Lindsfold (1978) proposed that one of the antecedents to trust is benevolence. A person that is seen as benevolent and helpful is usually liked and, consequently, is perceived as trustworthy (Deutsch, 1973). Additionally, if that behavior is personally chosen rather than role prescribed, serves to meet legitimate needs, and demonstrates interpersonal care and concern rather than enlightened self-interest, affect-based trust is likely to develop (McAllister, 1995).

### Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the belief that employees form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and well being (Eisenberger et al. 1986). Perceived organizational support will be affected by an employer's treatment of the employee and, in turn, that employee will form beliefs concerning the organization's motives underlying the treatment (Eisenberger et al. 1986)

### Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

While little research has attempted to identify the factors that explain the development of POS (Moideenkutty, Blau, Kumar, & Nalakath, 2001), some factors have been found that affect it, including communication in the organization (Moideenkutty et al. 2001; Amason & Allen, 1997), the discretion of the organization with respect to job conditions (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997), satisfaction with the organization's pay system (Miceli & Mulvey, 2000), as well as style of the supervisor (Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998). Table 2.2 shows the antecedents to perceived organizational support.



TABLE 2.2  
Factors Affecting Perceived Organizational Support

Article	Factor	Result
Allen 1992; 1995	Communication	Positive feedback and quality of the information provided were found to be positively related to perceived organizational support
Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch 1997	Discretion of the organization	High discretion job conditions were found to be much more closely associated with POS than low discretion job conditions
Allen & Brady 1997	Total quality management	Perceived organizational support was found to be higher in organizations that had implemented a TQM program over those that had not
Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner 1998	Leader behavior	High consideration-high initiating structure leadership behaviors were found to be positively related to perceived organizational support
Shore & Barksdale 1998	Exchange relationships	Employees with mutual high obligations had higher levels of POS than employees with under obligations
Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff 1998; Moideenkutty, Blau, Kumar, & Nalakath 2001	Procedural and distributive justice	Procedural and distributive justice was found to be positively correlated to perceived organizational support
Miceli & Mulvey 2000	Pay system & pay level satisfaction	Pay system satisfaction, more than pay level satisfaction, was found to be positively related to perceived organizational support

Communication. Various aspects of organizational communication have been linked to perceived organizational support and organizational commitment (Allen, 1992; 1995). Formal positive feedback directed toward individuals, employee decision-making input, and top management's general expressions of support for employees have been found to be strongly related to perceived organizational support (Allen, 1995). It also appears that an organization's positive co-worker communication relationship and co-worker information quality will lead to higher levels of perceived organizational support, although the results are gender dependent with males reporting higher levels of POS (Amason & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment is also linked to inter-organizational communication with the quality of top management's information strongly linked to the development of commitment (Allen, 1992).

Perceived organizational support was found to be significantly higher in Total Quality Management (TQM) environments. Top management, in a TQM environment, typically distributes information to the organization's employees that is seen as useful, timely, clear, and accurate. Of those organizations that implemented a unified approach to TQM, perceived organizational support was found to be higher than in non-TQM organizations (Allen & Brady, 1997). This result appears to be due to the supervisor employee communication relationship. Managers of TQM organizations are able to successfully create a supportive environment, while managers of non-TQM organizations lack supportive gestures or credibility when making those gestures (Allen & Brady, 1997).

While the quality of the communication relationship is positively correlated with perceived organizational support and organizational commitment, the level of the communication relationship within the organization also impacts both factors. It has been found, for example, that POS appears to be influenced more by the top management-employee communication relationship than the immediate supervisor-employee relationship or the co-worker-employee relationship (Amason & Allen, 1997). The top management-employee communication relationship has a strong influence on organizational commitment as well although the superior-subordinate communication level was also important (Allen, 1992). The fact that both organizational commitment and POS are positively affected by communication between different levels (top-management/employee and superior/employee) more than same level communication (co-worker/co-worker) may be explained by the type of communication being conducted. Those in management positions are more likely to articulate the values and goals of the organization as well as employment practices, and address issues regarding the relative security of jobs within the organization (Allen, 1992). Thus, the information within the communication may be relevant in fostering both POS and organizational commitment.

Discretion of the Organization. Employees may consider the organization's discretion when evaluating their treatment by the organization (Eisenberger et al. 1997). Job conditions easily controlled by the organization are more strongly related to perceived organizational support than job conditions not controlled by the organization. As a result, job conditions in which the organization has considerable discretion will have greater impact on an employee's perceived

obligations and produce a stronger psychological contract than situations in which the organization has little or no influence (Eisenberger, et al. 1997).

Pay and Pay Systems. An employees' perception of organizational support appears to be affected by the pay system used in creating and maintaining compensation structures rather than pay level, the actual or relative level of rewards the individual receives. Pay system satisfaction was found to be positively related to later perceived organizational support while pay level satisfaction was unrelated to perceived organizational support. Satisfaction with the pay system, while leading to perceived organizational support, also led to employer commitment (Miceli & Mulvey, 2000). This result may be explained through the concept of procedural and distributive justice. Perceived organizational support is a global evaluation of the organization, while procedural justice is related to global evaluation of the organization and distributive justice is related to personal level evaluation. It is likely, therefore, that procedural justice will have a greater impact on perceived organizational support through global pay system satisfaction rather than distributive justice and personal pay level satisfaction (Miceli & Mulvey, 2000).

Procedural and Distributive Justice. Procedural justice, the fairness of the means, could be interpreted by employees as a discretionary action on the part of the organization. With discretion of the organization as a possible antecedent to perceived organizational support, procedural justice could then be interpreted to be an antecedent to perceived organizational support (Moideenkutty et al. 2001; Moorman et al. 1998). Distributive justice, on the other hand, is concerned with the fairness of the end results

in relation to the input. Based on the level of rewards provided relative to the employees' efforts, an employee could infer the degree to which the organization values their efforts, or the level of organizational support (Moideenkutty et al. 2001).

While both distributive and procedural justice have been shown to be positively related to perceived organizational support, a study of pharmaceutical sales representatives found the strongest correlate was distributive justice. The sample may have influenced the outcome, however, since the sales personnel are paid, at least partly, on commission. It is possible that the method of payment may have made distributive justice issues more important for this sample (Moideenkutty et al. 2001).

Other Factors. Certain types of leader behavior have been linked to the development of perceived organizational support. Two dimensions of leader behavior, initiating structure, which is a task orientation, and consideration, which denotes an interpersonal orientation have previously been identified as components of leader behavior. Those employees who work for a high consideration, high initiating structure supervisor perceive the organization to be significantly more supportive and are more committed to the organization than employees who work for supervisors with any of the other styles of leadership (Hutchison et al. 1998). When supervisors, either male or female, used a high consideration, high initiating structure style, employees perceived the organization to be more supportive of them than when supervisors used a low consideration, low initiating structure style. Male supervisors, however, when using a high consideration, high initiating structure style were able to gain more commitment from their subordinates than female supervisors who used the

same high consideration, high initiating structure style of leadership (Hutchison et al. 1998).

Four exchange relationships, defined by two dimensions (degree of balance in employee and employer obligations; level of obligation) appear to have an impact on perceived organizational support as well (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Obligations may vary from non-existent or no need to fulfill an obligation, to high where one party is seen as having a strong obligation to fulfill a particular contract term. The exchange relationships are defined as mutual high obligations, mutual low obligations, employee under-obligation, and employee over-obligation. In the mutual high-obligation exchange, the relationship is balanced with high levels of both employee and employer obligations. In this relationship, the employee feels highly obligated to fulfill a wide variety of contract terms and the organization is also highly obligated to them. In the mutual low obligation relationship, the employee feels that with limited effort they can maintain the employment relationship and they expect a limited amount in return from the organization. The employee over-obligation relationship indicates that the employee feels indebted to the organization due to past good treatment by the organization and wants to fulfill the obligations created by the organization. An employee in the under-obligation relationship would likely view their own part of the exchange as having been fulfilled in the past, while the organization has not reciprocated by fulfilling obligations to the employee. In a study of MBA students, it was found that the mutual high obligations group had the highest levels of POS, and the employee under-obligation group had the lowest levels of perceived organizational support (Shore & Barksdale, 1998).

### Correlates of Perceived Organizational Support

Support from the organization may vary with the support from fellow employees. Research has shown that executives may scan the social environment of the focal employee needing support and determine the level of support given by peers and supervisors. If those employees have been favorably supported by their supervisors and co-workers, then they are likely to receive more support from the organization, because the existing level of validation enforces that organization's support decision (Yoon & Lim, 1999). Also, only after an employee with a positive disposition had been supported by their supervisor could that employee then receive support from their organizations.

Perceived organizational support appears to have a positive correlation with age. Specifically, two age variables (chronological age and perceived relative age, the perceived age of an individual in comparison with other individuals in the immediate environment) have been shown to correlate with POS (Cleveland & Shore, 1992). The results were more pronounced for managerial employees than craft workers although the reasons for the difference are not known.

### Consequences of Perceived Organizational Support

POS has been linked to such actions as organizational commitment and turnover (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al. 1997), performance (Orpen, 1994; Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998), occupational stress (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998), elder care responsibility (Buffardi,

Smith, O'Brien, & Erdwins, 1999), and satisfaction with a job change (Eby & Dematteo, 2000). Table 2.3 shows the consequences of perceived organizational support.

Communication. Perceived organizational support and higher quality leader-member exchange are positively related to safety communication (Hofmann & Morgeson, 1999). This suggests that employees who perceive the organization as supportive and those that have high-quality relationships with their leader are more likely to feel free to raise safety concerns. This, it is proposed, is related to safety commitment and frequency of accidents. It was also found in a study of over 400 lower level employees of a midwestern United States engine gasket manufacturing firm, however, that the more supportive workers perceived the organization to be, the less likely they were to submit suggestions for process and product improvement (Lambert, 2000).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Organizational support has been found to be positively related to affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior that benefits a specific individual (OCBI) and organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organization as a whole (OCBO) (Randall et al. 1999). A relationship has also been found to exist between perceived organizational support and three behavioral dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. The three are interpersonal helping, which focuses on helping co-workers in their jobs when such help is needed; personal industry, which describes the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty; and loyal boosterism, which describes the



TABLE 2.3  
Consequences of Perceived Organizational Support

Article	Factor	Result
Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin 1999; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth 1997	Turnover	Perceived organizational support was found to be negatively related to withdrawal cognitions
Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin 1999; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth 1997	Organizational commitment	Perceived organizational support was found to be positively related to organizational commitment
Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro 1990	Performance-reward expectancies	High levels of perceived organizational support lead to greater performance-reward expectancies
Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch 1997; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin 1999	Job satisfaction	Perceived organizational support was found to be positively correlated to job satisfaction
Vagg & Spielberger 1998	Occupational stress	Lack of organizational support was found to be a major dimension of occupational stress
Orpen 1994; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin 1999; Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch 1998	Performance	Perceived organizational support has been positively correlated with performance and effort
Buffardi, Smith, O'Brien, & Erdwins 1999	Elder care responsibilities	Those with elder care responsibilities were found to be less satisfied with perceived organizational support
Hofmann & Morgeson 1999; Lambert 2000	Communication	Perceived organizational support was found to be positively correlated with safety communication and negatively correlated with the likelihood of submitting process and product improvement suggestions

TABLE 2.3 (continued)

Eby & Dematteo 2000	Job change	<p>Employees who relocated for a promotion had higher levels of perceived organizational support than those who relocated for a lateral move.</p> <p>Employees who relocated for a lateral move had higher levels of perceived organizational support than those who relocated for a downward job change.</p> <p>Employees who voluntarily relocated had higher levels of perceived organizational support than those who relocated involuntarily</p>
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promotion of the organizational image to outsiders (Moorman et al. 1998). Similarly, it was found that perceived organizational support is positively related to their engagement in citizenship behaviors that directly help the organization (Ladd & Henry, 2000).

Performance. Support from the organization appears to lead to higher levels of employee effort (Orpen, 1994) and resulting performance (Orpen, 1994; Randall et al. 1999). Supervisory ratings of employees' job performance have been found to have a positive relation to perceived organizational support as well as effort, although the relationship between POS and effort was moderated by exchange ideology, the employees' willingness to increase work effort for organizational rewards and benefits. A link has also been established between socioemotional needs, perceived organizational support, and performance (Armeli et al. 1998). In a study of police officers, the association between POS and arrests for driving while intoxicated, used

as an indicator of job performance, increased with the needs for approval, emotional support, esteem, and affiliation. This finding did not hold true for those officers with low socioemotional needs, however (Armeli et al. 1998).

Job Satisfaction. Perceived organizational support and job satisfaction are related, but distinct factors (Eisenberger et al. 1997). Higher levels of perceived organizational support are likely to foster more positive work attitudes thereby providing an increase in an employee's job satisfaction. Significant relationships have been found between perceived organizational support and job satisfaction with full-time manufacturing workers and undergraduate students who were also part-time workers (Cropanzano et al. 1997) as well as workers in private manufacturing firms and public sector organizations (Randall et al. 1999).

Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognitions. Perceived organizational support is part of a reciprocal exchange agreement in which good treatment by the organization creates an obligation in employees that they should treat the organization well in return (Eisenberger et al. 1986). On the basis of a social exchange framework, perceptions of employer commitment strengthens the employee's affective attachment to the organization, resulting in greater work-related behaviors intended to fulfill the organization's goals such as reducing absenteeism (Eisenberger et al. 1986). Research indicates that employees with high levels of perceived organizational support are more committed to the organization and less inclined to leave (Cropanzano et al. 1997; Randall et al. 1999).

Employees who perceive high support express stronger feelings of affiliation and loyalty to the organization, and stronger expectancies that high effort will produce material rewards involving pay and promotion, as well as social rewards including approval and recognition (Eisenberger et al. 1990). It appears that the organization that meets strong socioemotional needs will create a greater obligation to reciprocate with high work effort than support that meets weak needs (Armeli et al. 1998). Employees with strong exchange ideology expressed little obligation when they believed their organization showed little commitment to them. In contrast, when perceived organizational support was high, employees with a strong exchange ideology expressed approximately the same level of felt obligations as employees with a weak exchange ideology (Eisenberger et al. 2001).

Other Consequential Factors. Employees with high perceived organizational support tend to express greater performance-reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al. 1990). Evidence suggests that employees distinguish between two kinds of performance-reward expectancies: one expectancy related to pay and promotion and the other to approval, recognition, and influence. Employees with high perceived organizational support express stronger expectancies that high effort would produce material rewards involving pay and promotion, as well as social rewards including approval and recognition. In a study of hourly and managerial employees of a large steel mill, perceived organizational support was positively related to both of these types of performance reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al. 1990). Perceived autonomy partially mediated a positive relationship between performance-reward expectancy and perceived organizational support. Both performance-reward

expectancy and perceived self-determination were positively related to perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999).

Perceived organizational support and job pressure appear to be major dimensions of occupational stress for both male and female employees in a wide variety of occupations in several countries (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998). Women, however, had significantly higher scores than men related to job pressure severity. Overall, the lack of organizational support may lead to an increase in job-related stress.

In investigating perceived organizational support and work-family balance, it has also been found that those individuals with elder-care responsibilities are significantly less satisfied with their organizational support than those without such obligations (Buffardi et al. 1999). Although the reasons behind this finding are unconfirmed, it appears that since this is a relatively new phenomenon, organizations have not yet developed the supportive resources necessary to assist those with elder care responsibility (Buffardi et al. 1999).

The circumstances surrounding a job change may be interpreted by an employee as an indication of the organization's regard for that employee, or their perceived organizational support. Employees who experienced a promotion (job change) reported significantly higher perceptions of organizational support than those who made a lateral or downward job change (Eby & Dematteo, 2000). Further, lateral movers expressed significantly higher perceptions of organizational support than those who made a downward move. Finally, employees who described their relocation decision as voluntary expressed higher perceptions of organizational support than

those who described their decision as involuntary (Eby & Dematteo, 2000). It is proposed that the characteristics of the relocation situation provide the employee with an indication of his or her value to the organization. Those employees that faced a lateral or downward move viewed the organization as less supportive than those employees who were promoted. Similarly, those employees who were forced to move saw the organization as less supportive than those employees who were given the option to remain at their current location or move to another location (Eby & Dematteo, 2000).

The relationship between reciprocation wary employees and performance has been investigated with reciprocation wary employees fearing exploitation in interpersonal relationships. This fear of exploitation has lead to a generalized cautiousness in reciprocating aid (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). A negative relationship was found between reciprocation wariness and both in-role job performance and extra-role job performance for employees with low perceived organizational support. Reciprocation wary employees were less likely to exceed a minimum level of conventional job performance or to engage in pro-organizational behavior. With high perceived organizational support, reciprocation wariness was positively related to extra-role job performance and was either positively related to in-role job performance or showed no reliable relationship with in-role job performance (Lynch et al. 1999).

### The Relationship between Trust and Perceived Organizational Support

A psychological contract is the interaction between the organization and employee (Schein, 1970) and represents an exchange in which the organization does certain things to and for the employee and the employee reciprocates by providing the organization with certain services and behaviors. Perceived organizational support is theoretically based on reciprocity in the social exchange relationship (Allen & Brady, 1997) in which good treatment by the organization creates a general obligation, based on the reciprocity norm, that is, for employees to care about their organization and treat it well in return (Eisenberger et al. 2001). The employees' obligation, then, is repaid through work-related behaviors that support organizational goals (Eisenberger et al. 1990). If the employees or trustors perceive that the target of trust is genuinely interested in their welfare and motivated to seek joint gain, trust will emerge (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). Trust by the supervisor can be shown through work-related supportive behaviors that influence the reactions of the employee which, in turn, increase the level of the employee's trust for the supervisor (Mayer & Davis, 1998).

Perceived organizational support creates trust that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligations of noticing and rewarding employee efforts made on its behalf (Eisenberger et al. 1990). With this view, economic factors are of significance in employee behaviors such as turnover and absenteeism since it is believed that proper behavior increases the expectation that the employee's performance will lead to greater rewards. This is done through the creation of trust that the organization will

reciprocate for the desired behavior and efforts made on its behalf (Cook & Wall, 1980; Eisenberger et al. 1986; Eisenberger et al. 1990; Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

An employees' general perception of being valued and cared about by the organization is positively related to affective as well as calculative involvement in the organization (Eisenberger et al. 1990). Increased perceived organizational support strengthens an employee's affective attachment to the organization, resulting in greater efforts to fulfill the organization's goals (Eisenberger et al. 1986). This identification and involvement with a particular organization corresponds to the findings of Cook and Wall (1980) who noted that trust in management was positively correlated with measures of identification, loyalty, and involvement. Similarly, employees with high perceived organizational support expressed greater affective attachment to the organization and greater performance-reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al. 1990). It appears that employees recognize two kinds of performance-reward expectancies, one expectancy related to pay and promotion and the other to approval, recognition, and influence. Perceived organizational support was found to be positively related to both of these types of performance reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al. 1990).

Trust in supervisor has been found to be a mediator of procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994) while perceived organizational support has been found to mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman et al. 1998). Together, these two sets of results suggest a possible relationship between trust in supervisor and perceived organizational support.



While Doney, Cannon, and Mullen (1998) noted that trust may develop through benevolence in which the trustor believes the trustee is concerned about the trustor's well being, they did not empirically investigate their propositions. Mayer and Davis (1998), in a study of nonunion production employees and supervisors, found a positive correlation between a change in trust and work-supportive behaviors, but they did not utilize the Perceived Organizational Support scale. Rather, they developed seven items written to indicate the extent to which the supervisor supports or impedes the employee's efforts. The Eisenberger et al. (1986) POS scale was used in a study of nurses who were subjected to organizational downsizing, but the measure of trust in the study was a three-item measure of organizational trust rather than Mayer et al.'s (1995) version (Armstrong-Stassen et al. 2001). The POS and trust relationship has been investigated previously, but in order to test the relationship between Eisenberger et al.'s. (1986) perceived organizational support and Mayer et al.'s (1995) concept of trust, the following hypothesis is presented:

H2: Individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support will experience high levels of trust.

### The Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support and Trustworthiness

Although prior research has presented evidence that both trustworthiness and POS are positively related to trust, no research has investigated both of these antecedents of trust in the same study. However, an examination of POS from a trust theory perspective suggests that POS and trustworthiness are likely to be highly correlated. Fuller and Hester (2001), in a study of union participation, noted that process-related justice consists of interactional justice, an interpersonal component,

and procedural justice, a structural component. While both interactional and procedural justice would relate to perceived union support, it was hypothesized that interactional justice would be more strongly related to union support. Fuller and Hester (2001) also noted that procedural and interactional justice provide information about organizational trustworthiness by influencing integrity and benevolence, two of the three components of trustworthiness, the other being ability. To the extent that Fuller and Hester (2001) are correct that support captures the benevolence and integrity aspects of trustworthiness, then perceived organizational support and trustworthiness are likely to be strongly related. Furthermore, it seems unlikely that perceived organizational support will make a substantial contribution to the prediction of trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness because POS does not account for the ability component of trustworthiness. Although I make no formal hypothesis regarding the relationship between POS and trustworthiness, or the extent to which each of these variables makes a unique contribution to trust, these questions will be examined in the analysis of the data.

### Consequences of Trust

The consequences of trust include more willingness to work (Oldham, 1975), greater task and job performance (Oldham, 1975; Rich, 1997), enhanced job satisfaction (Rich, 1997), improved economic performance (Knack & Keefer, 1997), and increased risk taking in the relationship (Mayer et al. 1995). Table 2.4 lists consequences of trust. In general, employees are more supportive of or committed to authorities, and the institutions that the authorities represent, when trust is relatively high. Support for organizational authorities may be manifested in a variety of ways.

TABLE 2.4

## Consequences of Trust

Article	Consequence	Result
Oldham 1975	Willingness to work	Willingness to work hard correlated positively with personal trustworthiness of the supervisor
Oldham 1975	Task performance	Task performance correlated positively with the personal trust of the supervisor
Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman 1995	Risk taking in the relationship	Risk taking in the relationship is a function of trust
Rich 1997	Job satisfaction	Trust in the sales manager is positively correlated to the salesperson's job satisfaction
Rich 1997	Job performance	Trust in the sales manager is positively correlated to the salesperson's job performance
Knack & Keefer 1997	Economic performance	Trust between people in a society is positively correlated with stronger economic performance of that society
Knack & Keefer 1997	Dependence on formal institutions	Trust between people in a society is negatively correlated with dependence on formal institutions to enforce agreements

People who feel supportive of organizational authorities are likely to be satisfied with their relationship with the authorities, be committed to the organization,

and willing to behave in ways that help to further the authorities' goals and, by extension, the goals of the organization (Brockner et al. 1997).

It appears that goal internalization, willingness to work, and actual task performance are positively related to the subject's trust of the supervisor (Oldham, 1975). Similarly, in a study of salespeople, it was found that the greater the trust a salesperson has in the sales manager, the greater the salesperson's job satisfaction and overall job performance (Rich, 1997). When salespersons have an honest, competent, and reliable sales manager who can be trusted, they will generally be more satisfied with their job and exhibit higher levels of job performance, including extra-role behaviors (Rich, 1997).

Trust and civic cooperation are associated with stronger economic performance while economic activities that require some agents to rely on the future actions of others are accomplished at lower cost in higher trust environments (Knack & Keefer, 1997). These trust sensitive transactions may include employment contracts in which the tasks performed by the employee are difficult for a manager or supervisor to monitor and, as a result, the manager must trust the employee. Trust sensitive transactions could also include the exchange of goods and services for payment at a future date as well as financial decisions that are made based on the assurances of the financial institutions or government that the funds will not be seized. Individuals in higher trust societies spend less to protect themselves from being exploited in economic transactions. In higher trust societies, litigation is less frequent and it is less likely that a written contract will be needed. When a contract is used, it is likely that it will not specify every possible contingency. Individuals in high trust societies are also

less likely to use private security equipment and services, and bribes to protect themselves from unlawful violations of their property rights. As a result, assets are available for more productive uses. Low trust in a society can also discourage innovation by businesses. By allocating more time to monitoring his or her employees, suppliers, and partners, an entrepreneur has less time to devote to the innovation of new products or processes.

Societies characterized by high levels of trust enjoy greater levels of investment and economic activity and are also less dependent on formal institutions to enforce agreements (Knack & Keefer, 1997). Government officials in societies with high levels of trust are seen as trustworthy and their pronouncements of policy are seen as credible. Enrollment in secondary education may be higher in societies where trust improves access to credit for the poor (Knack & Keefer, 1997).

One consequence of trust is risk taking in the relationship (Mayer et al. 1995). This is different from general risk-taking behaviors because it can only occur in the context of a specific, identifiable relationship with another party. Given the level of risk inherent in a given task, a manager's decision to delegate it to an employee represents risk taking in the relationship which, in a supervisor/subordinate relationship, could occur in the form of delegation of authority (Schoorman et al. 1996). Risk taking in the relationship also suggests that trust will increase the likelihood that a trustor will not only form some affective link with a trustee, but also that the trustor will allow personal vulnerability (Mayer et al. 1995). The perception of risk, on the other hand, involves the trustor's belief about likelihood of gains or losses outside of considerations that involve the relationship with the particular trustee.

Mayer et al. (1995) propose that if the level of trust surpasses the threshold of perceived risk, then the trustor will engage in risk taking in the relationship. If the level of perceived risk is greater than the level of trust, the trustor will not engage in risk taking in the relationship.

### Proactive Personality

Employees have a relatively stable behavioral tendency to either identify and act on opportunities, take initiative and cause change in the workplace, or to remain passive and rely on others for change. The personal disposition toward action, known as proactive personality, is associated with other criterion variables, such as activities aimed at bringing about constructive change, but is distinct from other personality concepts, such as the need for achievement (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker & Sprigg, 1999). A proactive personality is indicative of one who is unencumbered by situational forces and creates change within the organization (Bateman & Crant, 1993). These individuals show personal initiative, take action when needed, and remain resolute in their conviction to alter their environment regardless of, or even in spite of, situational constraints (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Individuals with proactive personality are inclined to engage in proactive behavior, which may include challenging the status quo in order to effect change within the organization (Crant, 2000). This challenge may be influenced by the individual's risk propensity, or the tendency of a person to avoid or take risks (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992) as well as the individual's propensity to trust, based on prior experiences and information exchanged between parties. It is likely that individuals with high levels of proactive personality, then, would be more likely to challenge the status quo and take risks that may have negative repercussions.

People who are not proactive react, adapt, and are shaped by the circumstances of their situation and forgo the opportunity to change their environment. Employees with proactive personalities create situations consistent with high on-the-job performance resulting in higher levels of job success (Crant, 1995; Seibert et al. 1999).

Proactive personality has been shown to be positively and significantly related to career success as shown by the current employee's salary, satisfaction with their career, and number of promotions received (Seibert et al. 1999) as well as entrepreneurial intentions (Crant, 1996). In addition, an employee with a proactive personality is more likely to engage in extracurricular and civic activities with the intent of bringing about constructive change (Bateman & Crant, 1993).

For proactive employees, lower levels of job control have been found to result in a strong association between job demands and job strain, leading to the conclusion that a proactive personality and job control are needed to reduce the strain from job demands. As a result, proactive personality has been suggested as a possible selection criterion for demanding jobs in order to avoid exposing passive employees to an environment that would likely overwhelm them (Parker & Sprigg, 1999)

### Voice

An employee experiencing job dissatisfaction has several options available as a response to the dissatisfaction. He or she can leave or exit the organization usually with the belief that the situation creating the dissatisfaction is unlikely to improve. This voluntary turnover requires significant effort on the part of the employee and is detrimental to the organization (Farrell, 1983; Zhou & George, 2001). In lieu of exiting the organization, the employee can choose to neglect his or her work through

lax behavior. This psychological inattention and temporary abandonment of the employee's work may, in some cases, serve to notify management of problems in the workplace. Alternately, the employee may choose to suffer in silence with the belief that the situation will eventually resolve itself. The passive loyalty shown by the employee may be transitory in nature leading to other behaviors if the situation continues (Farrell, 1983). The fourth option, voice, is seen as an active and constructive response that emphasizes the return to previous levels of performance. Voice may be directed toward authorities inside or outside the managerial hierarchy and is likely when members have significant involvement in the organization (Farrell, 1983).

Voice, or advocacy participation (Van Dyne et al. 1994), is an active, constructive behavior that is intended to improve rather than merely criticize (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Voice involves speaking up and making innovative suggestions for change intended to improve standard operating procedures in spite of the disagreement of others (Erez et al. 2002). Because voice is a behavior, the term does not refer to the use or availability of complaint or grievance procedures nor is it included in normal role behavior when that behavior is part of a job description. An auditor or consultant, for example, may make constructive suggestions to clients, but since the giving of advice is typically included in their job descriptions, the suggestions would not be considered "voice" in the definition used here (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Even though in some cases suggestions may be detrimental to a group such as a "know it all" that is constantly telling fellow employees how to do



their work. Voice is constructive and makes a positive contribution to an organization (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001).

Through voice, an organization can find out specific information about a problem quickly and address it directly, thereby improving the situation. As a result, voice is considered to be the preferred way to learn about a deterioration in the employee and organization relationship (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2002).

Exit and voice can be independent or sequential. As independent behaviors, an employee may determine that a situation will not be resolved by management and that employee may simply leave the organization without an expression of voice. In a sequential pattern, an employee may voice his or her concern about a particular situation that the employee finds unacceptable. If that situation is not remedied, the employee may leave the organization (Whithey & Cooper, 1989).

Voice has been found to be higher in teams that utilize peer evaluations. A possible reason for this may be that individuals that are evaluated by their peers have an incentive to make contributions that are not only valued by their peers but also visible to their peers, and voice is a visible behavior (Erez et al. 2002).

### The Relationship Between Voice and Trust

Studies have shown that the frequency and accuracy of upward communication is related to trust in one's superior. As the level of trust between an employee and superior increases, upward communication increases (Glauser, 1984). A reciprocal relationship exists between trust and communication; better communication is a byproduct of trust and trust develops through communication (Glauser, 1984). If the trustor, or sender, has a low level of trust in the receiver, or trustee, it is more likely

that the trustor will suppress information, particularly information which reflects unfavorably on him or her (O'Reilly, 1978). With high levels of trust, the trustor is likely to communicate significantly more information to the trustee, including unfavorable and/or important information (O'Reilly, 1978). Since the definition of voice notes that it is an attempt to change, rather than exit, an objectionable state of affairs (Hirschman, 1970), communication could be included in that attempt and, as a result, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H3: Individuals who have high levels of trust toward others will express high levels of voice toward those individuals.

### The Relationship Between Voice and Proactive Personality

As noted earlier, proactive personality is a personal disposition toward action. Individuals with high levels of proactive personality take personal initiative and are committed to bringing about positive and constructive change to their environment regardless of situational forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker & Sprigg, 1999). Similarly, voice involves speaking up for change in an effort to improve the current method of operating (Erez et al. 2002). Voice is a behavior that is seen as active and constructive and intended to improve rather than criticize (Farrell, 1983). It would be likely that the personal disposition of proactive personality would be positively related to voice and precede the action of voice. As a result, the following hypothesis is presented:

- H4a: Individuals who have high levels of proactive personality will express high levels of voice.

### The Moderating Role of Proactive Personality

This dissertation hypothesizes that individuals who have high levels of trust toward others will express high levels of voice toward those individuals, individuals who have high levels of proactive personality will express high levels of voice, and individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will express high levels of voice. While these hypotheses utilize voice as the dependent or outcome variable, the independent variables differ based on the theoretical justification presented. While significant main effects may exist between the independent variables and the dependent variable, voice, there may be an interaction between the independent variables. Baron and Kenny (1986) note that a third variable, or moderator, affects the strength and/or the direction of the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The relation, in other words, between an independent variable and a dependent variable changes as a function of the second, or moderator variable. Since proactive personality is a personal disposition, whereas trust and voice are actions, it is likely that the relatively stable proactive personality will moderate the relationship between trust and voice. Based on the preceding, the following hypothesis is presented:

H4b: Proactive personality will moderate the relationship between trust and voice.

### Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is conceived of as the psychological attachment felt by the employee for the organization (Bartlett, 2001; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) or the relative strength of an individual's involvement in and identification with an organization (Mowday et al. 1982). It is characterized by a strong belief in and

acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al. 1974).

Affective or attitudinal commitment is an individual's emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in a particular organization. Employees with strong affective commitment enjoy membership in the organization and work in that organization because "they want to" (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al. 1982).

### Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Trust in management has been found to be positively correlated with organizational commitment (Hrebiniak & Aluto, 1972) as well as separate measures of identification, involvement, and loyalty (Cook & Wall, 1980). Moreover, in a study of employees in a juvenile detention center, Liou (1995) found that organizational trust was a major predictor of employee organizational commitment.

Early studies of the antecedents to organizational commitment typically included personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences (Mowday et al. 1982; Steers, 1977). Personal characteristics are those variables that describe the employee, such as age, gender, and education, and experiences of individuals prior to their entry into the organization. Job characteristics, sometimes referred to as role-related characteristics or organizational factors, refer to the aspects of the job and elements of the work environment, including job scope and role ambiguity (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001; Mowday et al. 1982). Work experiences, such as organizational dependability and trust, are seen as a socializing force and represent the extent to

which psychological attachments are formed with the organization (Mowday et al. 1982; Steers, 1977).

In a study of two groups, hospital employees and research scientists/engineers, the personal characteristics of age and the need for achievement were found to be significantly associated with commitment with at least one of the groups studied (Steers, 1977). A positive relationship has also been noted between organizational commitment and age, interpersonal trust, and religious affiliations (with Protestants exhibiting higher levels of commitment than other religious affiliations). An inverse relationship between organizational commitment and the desire to pursue advanced education has also been noted (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). Both age and duration of service with the organization have been positively correlated with affective measures of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984), while a positive correlation with age and organizational commitment has been found (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

With the second antecedent category, job characteristics or organizational factors, feedback and the opportunity to develop close friendships at work are related to commitment (Steers, 1977). Affective commitment is significantly related to job autonomy, supervisory support, and routinization (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997), as well as job challenge, role clarity, and peer cohesion (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Work experiences appear to be more closely associated with commitment than both job and personal characteristics, thereby providing support that organizational commitment depends more upon work experiences than the other sets of antecedents (Steers, 1977). Specifically, group attitudes toward the organization, feelings of personal importance to the organization, and organizational dependability were all

significantly related to organizational commitment (Steers, 1977). Downsizing, for example, may have significant effects on employees' organizational commitment. Organizations undergoing downsizing may designate certain jobs as redundant and the individuals in those jobs must either find another position within the organization by a certain date or be laid off. A significant decline in organizational commitment and trust was experienced by employees in those jobs designated as redundant during the downsizing period compared with those who were not designated redundant (Armstrong-Stassen, 2002). The researchers noted that the decline in trust may actually have begun prior to the actual downsizing but after an announcement of a reduction in the workforce. In the post-downsizing period, however, those employees who were declared redundant, but not laid off, reported an increase in organizational commitment and trust in the organization compared with employees in positions that had not been designated as redundant. This suggests that those employees in positions designated as redundant perceive the organization as demonstrating its commitment to them and re-establishing the psychological contract (Armstrong-Stassen, 2002).

A positive relationship appears to exist between support for training from senior staff and organizational commitment as well as support for training from colleagues and organizational commitment (Bartlett, 2001). This finding suggests that social support from senior staff and colleagues for training is an important part of the development and maintenance of commitment. Furthermore, a positive relationship exists between perceived benefits of training and organizational commitment (Bartlett, 2001).

While studies have concentrated on the antecedent groups previously mentioned, recent research has emphasized two broad types of factors: personal factors that represent the characteristics and experiences of individuals, and situational (or organizational) factors that include the work environment and the nature of the work experiences (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). While organizational commitment is influenced by both personal and situational factors, it appears that organizational commitment is influenced more by situational factors than personal factors (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). Those factors include, among others, role ambiguity, role conflict, and leader initiating structure behavior.

### The Relationship Between Trust and Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is conceived of as the psychological attachment felt by the employee for the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). It is characterized by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al. 1974). Trust in management has been found to be positively correlated to organizational commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) as well as similar constructs such as involvement and loyalty to the organization (Cook & Wall, 1980). Moreover, in a study of employees in a juvenile detention center, Liou (1995) found that organizational trust was a major predictor of employee organizational commitment.

In conditions of high trust, employees tend to have high levels of support for their institutions and authorities. This support may be shown through their efforts to

work toward the achievement of authorities' and organizational goals (Brockner et al. 1997). Since empirical research has proven the existence of a relationship between trust and organizational commitment (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Liou, 1995), the following hypothesis is proposed.

H5: Individuals who have high levels of trust will experience more organizational commitment than other individuals.

### Correlates of Organizational Commitment

Correlates of organizational commitment are similar to its' antecedents but are believed to form at the same time or in conjunction with, the development of organizational commitment (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). Correlates include satisfaction with an organization's pay system, recognition and reward systems, and employee and employer obligations.

Organizational commitment has been found to be more positively related to pay system satisfaction, than absolute pay or pay level satisfaction (Miceli & Mulvey, 2000) and inversely related to the degree of dissatisfaction with organizational recognition and reward policies (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). It has been proposed that an employee's commitment to the organization varies with the organization's reward structure or the employee's perception of the inducements to stay versus the employee's contributions to the organization. Specifically, an employee's organizational commitment will increase as his satisfaction with the organization's reward and recognition policies increases (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

The extent of perceived employer contract fulfillment has a significant effect on employees' perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Specifically,



each dimension of psychological contract fulfillment (transactional obligations, monetizable exchanges during a specific period of time; training obligations, training provided; and relational obligations such as job security and career development) had a positive effect on perceived organizational support while fulfillment of transactional and training obligations had a significant effect on organizational commitment.

As noted earlier, relationships can be defined along two axes: employer obligations and employee obligations (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Those obligations range from low, where there is no obligation to fulfill a particular contract term to high, where the employee or employer has a high level of obligation to fulfill a particular contract term. In a study of working MBA students, the mutual high obligations group, where both employee and employer have a high obligation for contract fulfillment, was found to have the highest levels of affective commitment. This was followed by the employee over-obligation group, in which the employee feels obligated to the organization based on past good treatment by the organization, and the mutual low obligations group, where both employee and employer obligations are low, resulting in a weak, balanced relationship. Finally, the employee under-obligation group exhibited the least amount of affective commitment since the employee viewed his part of the exchange as completed while the organization has not yet reciprocated.

### Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Affective commitment has many positive consequences for the organization. It has been found, for example, to be positively related to trust (Nyhan, 1999), job

autonomy, supervisory support, and routinization (Ko et al. 1997), as well as job challenge, role clarity, and peer cohesion (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Using employees in four dairy cooperatives in New Zealand and Ireland, Randall and O'Driscoll (1997), found those who felt affective commitment expressed agreement with nine organizational policies including assessment of job performance, decision-making procedures, promotion policies, and human resource management procedures. Employees were also found to identify with values important to the organization. Those employees with higher levels of affective commitment identified with values such as employee job satisfaction and morale, loyalty, open communication, and pressure individuals to succeed.

### The Relationship between Voice and Organizational Commitment

Loyalty is similar to affective organizational commitment (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2002), and some researchers have used measures of organizational commitment in place of loyalty (Leck & Saunders, 1992). Hirschman (1970), for example, described loyalty as a "special attachment" to an organization and Boroff and Lewin (1997) interpreted loyalty as the degree to which a person identifies with an organization, or in other words, organizational commitment.

As an employee perceives a deterioration in the relationship with the organization, the employee is likely to either voice complaints or leave the organization. Those employees that are loyal to the organization, however, are more likely to voice their concerns regarding an undesirable situation rather than terminate their employment with the organization (Hirschman, 1970). Attempts to draw

definitive empirical conclusions regarding the correlation between organizational commitment or loyalty and voice have met with mixed results. In a study of graduates of the Queen's University Bachelor of Commerce program, voice was more likely under conditions where organizational commitment was high (Whithey & Cooper, 1989). In contrast, another study found that employees with higher levels of loyalty to the organization are less likely to exercise their use of voice (Boroff & Lewin, 1997). Although the relationship between voice and loyalty was found to be strongly negative, the results may be skewed since respondents to the survey were members of one of two unions which had represented employees of the firm for more than fifty years. Other studies have noted positive correlations between higher levels of employee satisfaction, loyalty, and the use of voice, as well as a positive correlation between the strength of an employee's loyalty and his or her preference for less formal voice methods (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2002; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985). Based on Hirschman's (1970) work and that of others in non-union environments, the following hypothesis is presented:

H6: Individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will express high levels of voice.

### Withdrawal Cognition

Withdrawal cognitions are thoughts individuals have when they are contemplating terminating the existing business relationship with their employer. These thoughts are considered to be an important first step in the separation process which occurs prior to actually quitting (Mobley et al. 1978; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Although some researchers consider withdrawal cognitions to encompass all of the

purported stages of the withdrawal process, withdrawal cognitions have been generally described as the first step in the separation process and include thoughts related to the probability of finding an acceptable employment alternative, separation-related thoughts, and the development of an intention to search for new employment. (Mobley et al. 1978). These cognitions are a critical part of the separation process because they are a precursor to the second basic stage of the withdrawal process which is the development of a behavioral intention to leave the organization. Moreover, Miller, Katerberg, and Hulin (1979) found that withdrawal cognitions explained the greatest proportion of variance in turnover in a study of National Guard personnel.

### The Relationship Between Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognition

Prior research supports the negative correlation between levels of commitment and actual turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter et al. 1974; Steers, 1977) and withdrawal-related cognitions (Bishop et al. 2000; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Steers, 1977). Since withdrawal cognition occurs prior to actual turnover (Mobley et al. 1978), and a positive correlation has been found between withdrawal cognition and turnover (Steers, 1977), withdrawal cognition could be considered a proxy for turnover. The negative correlations between organizational commitment and withdrawal cognitions have been found in samples ranging from production workers at an automotive outsource manufacturing plant (Bishop et al. 2000) to expatriates that is, corporate managers on overseas assignments for a period of several years (Guzzo et al. 1994). Since committed employees work toward organizational goals and desire to remain with the organization, those employees should be less likely to leave the

organization. The strongest outcome of employee commitment, therefore, should be reduced turnover (Mowday et al. 1982). The following hypothesis is proposed:

- H7: Individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will experience less withdrawal cognition than other individuals.

### Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 presented a review of the relevant literature concerning trust, perceived organizational support, voice, proactive personality, organizational commitment, withdrawal cognitions, and hypotheses related to these variables. The first section presented the conceptualization of trust, including its evolution and propensity to trust. The second section discussed two different models of trust and a comparison of those models. The next section presented the antecedents of trust, followed by a discussion of perceived organizational support including its antecedents, correlates, and consequences. This was followed by the role of perceived organizational support as an antecedent to trust. The next section discussed the consequences of trust. This section was followed by the conceptualizations of proactive personality and voice. The relationship between trust and voice was then discussed. Next, proactive personality was discussed in relation to voice and its moderating effects on the trust/voice relationship. Organizational commitment including its antecedents, correlates, and consequences were presented along with the relationship between trust and organizational commitment. The relationship between voice and organizational commitment was presented followed by a discussion of withdrawal cognition, its relationship with organizational commitment, and the conclusion.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the operational definitions for each variable used in the hypothesized model and a discussion of the research instrument used in the gathering of data for the survey. The next section provides information on the research methodology including the sample, data collection procedures, and methods of analysis.

#### Operationalization of Variables

This section provides definitions of the constructs used as well as descriptions of the instruments used. Each scale utilized in this study has previously been shown to have acceptable validity and reliability, where validity refers to the extent to which the construct is actually being measured and reliability is the extent to which a measure yields consistent results and is free from error (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1981). A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher and evidence of construct validity is sufficient for most research studies (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978).

#### Trust

For the purposes of this dissertation, trust is defined as the willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party with the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action important to the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). The trustee

will perform this action regardless of the ability of the trustor to control or monitor the actions of the trustee (Mayer et al. 1995). This conceptualization of trust holds that the trustor will be vulnerable to another party based on two factors: the perception that the other party is trustworthy and the trustor's general propensity to trust. Trustworthiness is comprised of three factors: ability, benevolence, and integrity, each measured by its own scale (Mayer et al. 1995). Trust itself has also been measured with a separate scale. The components of the overall trust scale will be discussed individually. Scales for each factor of trustworthiness (ability, benevolence, and integrity), as well as trust are shown in Table 3.1 as a 21-item semantic differential instrument with responses ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

**Ability.** One factor of trustworthiness, ability, is the group of characteristics, skills, and competencies that allow a party to have influence within some domain (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Ability, or a similar concept used by some researchers, competence, has been recognized as an essential element of trust (Good, 1988; Mishra, 1996). In development of the scale, items were pilot tested with Doctors of Veterinary Medicine (DVM) and executive MBA students with the final instrument comprising ten items measuring ability (Schoorman et al. 1996). Subsequent research reduced the scale to six items comprising the first six questions of the overall trust instrument.

TABLE 3.1

## Trust

Think about (company name)'s management team (names listed in parentheses for clarity). For each statement, write the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree or Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
------------------------	---------------	-----------------------------------	------------	------------------------

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Top management is very capable of performing its job.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Top management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Top management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I feel very confident about top management's skills.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Top management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Top management is well qualified.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Top management is very concerned about my welfare.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. My needs and desires are very important to top management.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Top management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Top management really looks out for what is important to me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Top management will go out of its way to help me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Top management has a strong sense of justice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. I never have to wonder whether top management will stick to its word.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Top management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Top management's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. I like top management's values.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Sound principles seem to guide top management's behavior.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. If I had my way, I wouldn't let top management have any influence over issues that are important to me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. I would be comfortable giving top management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.



The reliability of the initial 10-item Ability scale was found to be 0.93 when used with Doctors of Veterinary Medicine (Schoorman et al. 1996). Further research focused on the six items that most clearly reflect the ability dimension. Using the 6-item scale, an acceptable reliability of 0.85 was observed in a study of 170 nonunion production employees and supervisors. Another wave of surveys administered nine months later to the same group of employees recorded an observed reliability of 0.88 (Mayer & Davis, 1999). The Ability scale, when used in a study of restaurant employees, was found to have a reliability coefficient of 0.91 (Davis et al. 2000). A factor analysis indicated the items adequately loaded on the Ability domain (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998).

**Benevolence.** Benevolence is the extent to which the trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). If employees believe their supervisor has their best interest at heart and will exert effort on their behalf, the employees are more likely to trust the supervisor. Benevolence, therefore, represents a positive personal orientation of the employee to the supervisor (Davis et al. 2000). Within the overall trust instrument, the Benevolence scale comprises five questions (7 through 11).

The original Benevolence scale was comprised of twelve items with a reliability coefficient of 0.95 (Schoorman et al. 1996). The scale has subsequently been shortened to a 5-item scale with reliability coefficients of 0.87 and 0.89 when used in two surveys of plastics industry employees (Mayer & Davis, 1999). The same 5-item scale recorded a reliability coefficient of 0.92 when used with employees at multiple locations of a U.S. tool manufacturing firm (Mayer & Gavin, 1999). Items

included in the scale were found to tap the distinct benevolence domain as evidenced by confirmatory factor analysis. As a result, the measure was found to exhibit the necessary psychometric properties for hypothesis testing (Schoorman et al. 1996).

Integrity. Integrity is the extent to which the trustee's actions reflect acceptable values to the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). If an employee believes their supervisor has integrity, the employee is more likely to trust the supervisor. Even if the supervisor makes a decision that is contrary to the wishes of the employee, the employee will likely still trust the supervisor if the employee believes the supervisor was acting in a fair, just, and honest manner (Davis et al. 2000). Integrity comprises questions 12 through 17 of the overall trust instrument.

Similar to the Ability and Benevolence scales, the Integrity component of the trust scale was initially developed with a number of items and then reduced to six items (Mayer & Davis, 1998). Based on the results of a confirmatory factor analysis, the scales were found to tap into distinct domains and to be separable from each other (Schoorman et al. 1996). Reliability of 0.82 for the Integrity scale was found with plastics industry employees in one wave of surveys followed by a reliability of 0.88 for a second wave (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Research utilizing data from tool manufacturing employees yielded reliability coefficients of 0.90 for trust in a plant manager and 0.85 for trust in the tool manufacturing firm's management team (Mayer & Gavin, 1999).

Trust. Based on the expectation that the trustee will perform an action important to the trustor regardless of whether the trustee can monitor that action, trust

is the willingness of the trustee to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustor (Schoorman et al. 1996). The trust scale comprises the final four questions of the 21 question trust instrument.

Acceptable reliability and validity estimates for the trust measure have been reported. Schoorman et al. (1996) noted that the Trust scale was found to have strong internal consistency and a reliability of 0.82, while Mayer and Gavin (1999) recorded reliability coefficients of 0.81 and 0.72 for trust in plant managers and top management teams, respectively.

### Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support refers to an employee's belief concerning the extent to which the organization cares about his or her well-being and values his or her contributions (Eisenberger et al. 1986). Perceived organizational support is operationalized using the short form 8-item measure from Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) 36-item survey. As shown in Table 3.2, participants indicate their agreement or disagreement with particular statements based on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) was originally validated through factor analysis. In a study of 361 employees in a variety of organizations, including the financial, manufacturing, government, and education sectors, Eisenberger et al. (1986) identified 36 items that represented the employees' belief that the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being. The analysis resulted in a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.97. In a subsequent study, Eisenberger et al. (1986) utilized a short version of the SPOS with

17 items which produced a reliability coefficient of 0.93. In a study of 295 alumni of the University of Delaware, Eisenberger et al. (1997) developed an 8-item version of the SPOS using items from the original 36-item SPOS. Use of the 8-item Survey of

TABLE 3.2

## Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Disagree 5	Disagree 6	Strongly Disagree 7
------------------------	------------	---------------------------	--------------	---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. My organization really cares about my well being.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. My organization shows very little concern for me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. My organization cares about my opinions.

Perceived Organizational Support has yielded acceptable reliabilities applicable to a wide variety of organizations. Kraimer, Wayne, and Jaworski (2001), for example, found a Cronbach alpha of 0.92 with expatriates of an insurance provider, expatriates of a vehicle manufacturer, and expatriates of a chemical processor, while Eisenberger et al. (1999) found reliabilities of 0.90 and 0.89 using retail employees and alumni of an eastern United States university, respectively. Table 3.3 provides reliabilities for the short versions of the SPOS as utilized in various studies.

TABLE 3.3

Reliability Coefficients for Short Versions of the  
Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Study	Version Used	Coefficient Alpha
Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986	17-Item	0.93
Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988	17-Item	0.95
Shore & Tetrick, 1991	17-Item	0.95
Shore & Wayne, 1993	17-Item	0.95
Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996	17-Item	0.82
Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999	17-Item	0.94
Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001	17-Item	0.93
Tansky & Cohen, 2001	17-Item	0.85
Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996	8-Item	0.94
Hutchison & Garstka 1996	8-Item	0.89
Hutchison, 1997 (a)	8-Item	0.92
Hutchison, 1997 (b)	8-Item	0.92
Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998	8-Item	0.89
Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999	8-Item	0.89
Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999	8-Item	0.90
Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001	8-Item	0.92

### Organizational Commitment

There are many definitions of commitment, but a common theme among them is an affective or emotional attachment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Analysis of nine studies involving police officers, volunteers, and professional employees provide strong support for an affective or emotional construct of organizational commitment (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994).

Affective commitment, or the emotional attachment an employee has toward his or her organization, refers to an employee's identification with and involvement in his or her organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees with strong affective commitment desire to remain with an organization out of choice rather than need, or, in other words, because they want rather than have to work for the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) was comprised of eight items (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The scale utilized a 7-point response format ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Subsequent item analysis revealed that a 6-item scale produced reliabilities comparable to the 8-item scales (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). The ACS scale is presented in Table 3.4.

Internal consistency estimates (coefficient alpha) obtained in studies utilizing the 8-item scale ranged from 0.74 to 0.87 for the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Dunham et al. 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994). With the 6-item scales, a reliability of 0.82 for the ACS was obtained (Meyer et al. 1993). Factor analytic studies of the Affective Commitment scale shows it has been found to be psychometrically sound (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

TABLE 3.4

Affective Scale  
for Organizational Commitment

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	--------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. I do not feel "part of the family" at my organization.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

### Withdrawal Cognition

Withdrawal cognition occurs prior to actually quitting (Mobley et al. 1978) and is the willfulness on the part of the employee to leave his or her organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). The Intention to Turn Over Scale, used to measure withdrawal cognition, consists of two separate response formats for three items. The two responses are on 7-point scales, with the scale for the first item ranging from 1 (Not At All Likely) to 7 (Extremely Likely), and the scale for the remaining two items ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The average of the three items represents the scale score. The Intention to Turnover scale is presented in Table 3.5.

TABLE 3.5

## Withdrawal Cognition

Using the following scale, please indicate your response to the statement.

No At All Likely 1	2	Somewhat Likely 3	4	Quite Likely 5	6	Extremely Likely 7
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- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	--------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. I often think about quitting.  
\_\_\_\_\_ 3. I will probably look for a new job in the next year

The Withdrawal Cognition scale is one of several scales in the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ). Coefficient alpha is given as 0.83 for the scale (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). The scale exhibited a negative correlation with the job involvement and job satisfaction scales of the MOAQ.

### Voice

Voice is an attempt to change rather than escape an objectionable state of affairs (Hirschman, 1970). The intent of voice is to improve rather than criticize (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and it is possible that the inclusion of voice might increase the capacity of the organization to make good decisions (Nemeth & Staw, 1989). This is particularly true for organizations that operate in dynamic environments in which the



organization has sources of voice. These organizations are more likely to prosper or survive than those without the benefit of voice (Nemeth & Staw, 1989).

Based on the work of Van Dyne et al. (1994) and Whitley and Cooper (1989), six items comprise the Voice scale (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The items are presented in Table 3.6 and are measured on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) with the average of the items providing the scale score. To obtain multi-source data with this scale, self ratings of employees were collected as well as supervisor ratings. For the supervisor ratings of employees, the statements in the scale were changed from "I..." to "This employee..." This same method was utilized by Van Dyne and LePine (1998) in their study of helping and voice extra-role behaviors. The supervisor's scale is presented in Table 3.6.

TABLE 3.6

Voice

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Disagree 5	Disagree 6	Strongly Disagree 7
_____						
_____						
_____						
_____						
_____						
_____						

1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Reliability of the voice scale for the first pilot study of MBA graduate students was 0.82 while the second pilot study consisting of supervisors from 36 organizations throughout the Midwest was 0.89 (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Subsequent measures of voice behavior yielded Cronbach alphas from 0.88 to 0.96 (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Investigation of the voice scale supports its discriminant, predictive, and convergent validity over time across three rating sources (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

### Proactive Personality Scale

Proactive personality is a personal disposition toward action (Bateman & Crant, 1993). An individual with a proactive personality identifies opportunities, shows initiative, acts to bring about change, and perseveres until meaningful change is achieved (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The measurement of this personal disposition is intended to identify the differences in which people take action to influence their environments (Crant, 1996).

In the pilot study, consisting of upper-level undergraduate students at a southeastern state university, the 17-item Proactive Personality scale produced a coefficient alpha of 0.89 (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Subsequent studies involving business students at a private university in the Midwest and first-year MBA students provided a reliability coefficient of 0.87 for each group (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The 17-item scale was utilized in other studies with similar results of 0.89 for real estate agents and 0.88 for undergraduate and graduate MBA students (Crant, 1995, 1996). Shortened versions of the Proactive Personality scale have been utilized with 10 items and a reliability coefficient of 0.86, six items with a reliability coefficient of 0.85, and four items with a reliability coefficient of 0.85 (Parker, 1998; Parker & Sprigg, 1999;

Seibert et al. 1999). On a factor analysis of the 17-item scale, only one factor was found with an Eigenvalue greater than 1.0 while a scree plot indicated the same factor should be retained. As a result, the Proactive Personality scale taps a single broad construct. The 4-item Proactive Personality scale is presented in Table 3.7.

TABLE 3.7

## Proactive Personality Scale

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.				
Not True At All 1	A Little True 2	3	Mostly True 4	Very True 5
_____ 1. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.				
_____ 2. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.				
_____ 3. I am excellent at identifying opportunities.				
_____ 4. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.				

Employee Research Instrument

The complete research instrument is provided in Appendix C. Section 1 of the questionnaire examines the trustworthiness construct while section 2 assesses trust. Perceived organizational support is then examined, followed by organizational commitment, withdrawal cognition, and proactive personality. The final section collects demographic information.

### Supervisor Research Instrument

The supervisors' research instrument is found in Appendix D. The first section of the instrument assesses the supervisor's evaluation of their employees' use of voice while the second section provides demographic information on the supervisor.

### Sample Methodology

The sample for this dissertation included employees and supervisors from a firearms distributor employing approximately 128 employees, with distribution and call center facilities in a medium-sized city in the south.

### Data Collection Procedures

A cover letter was included with the questionnaires that were distributed to each employee and supervisor. The cover letter indicated the purpose of the survey and assured the respondent of the confidential nature of the research. A pre-addressed envelope was included with each questionnaire and cover letter in order for the respondent to return the questionnaire to the researcher. The supervisor cover letter is presented in Appendix A and the employee cover letter is presented in Appendix B.

### Statistical Techniques

Hypotheses 1 through 4a and 5 through 7 propose that various relationships exist between withdrawal cognition, organizational commitment, trust, perceived organizational support, trustworthiness, voice, and proactive personality. These hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analysis. Regression analysis is a dependence technique that is used to predict a single dependent variable in response to changes in one or more independent variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black,

1998). Independent variables are added and the proportion of variance attributed to each variable is determined.

Hypothesis 4b proposes that proactive personality will moderate the relationship between trust and voice. Moderation implies that the relationship between two variables, in this case trust and voice, will vary as a function of the moderator variable, or proactive personality (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Moderated regression analysis was utilized to assess this relationship.

### Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 presented the research design for this dissertation. Operational definitions for each variable were presented and its associated measure was identified and discussed. The research methodology including data collection procedures and statistical analysis methodologies were also presented.

## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION OF DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of the empirical analysis. The first section describes the demographics of the sample while the next section examines the potential for non-response bias. Section three provides information on the reliability of the measurement instruments and section four presents the study variables' descriptive statistics and correlations. The results of the regression analyses used to test the hypotheses are presented in the final section.

#### Characteristics of the Sample

The sample was taken from a firearms distributor that operates a call center and warehousing operation with administrative and technical support at a central location in the southern United States. The firearms distributor employed approximately 128 persons, of which 11 operated in a supervisory capacity. The job categories for the distributor included sales, administrative, packer, technical support, buyer, accounts payable, and accounts receivable, among others. Questionnaires were distributed to non-supervisory employees while supervisory personnel received a second questionnaire to be used to evaluate their employees. All employees also received cover letter explaining the purpose of the research, and an addressed a

envelope request to the firearms distributor resulted in four supervisory evaluations of 59 employees. Sixty-four employee surveys were also received after the first request. Two weeks after the initial wave, a second request was sent to employees and supervisors encouraging them to complete and return the survey. An additional 41 employee surveys were received from the firearms distributor as well as 7 supervisory evaluations of 66 employees, providing a total of 125 employee evaluations from the 11 supervisors. As a result, 105 completed employee surveys with matching supervisory evaluations were received from the firearms distributor providing a response rate of 82 percent.

Table 4.1 summarizes the characteristics of the respondents for the firearms distributor. The average employee age was 40 with eight years of experience. Fifty-three percent of the respondents were 40 years of age or under. Sixty-six percent of the firearms distributor's employees had 10 or fewer years with the organization while only two percent had 21 or more years with the organization. Approximately 58 percent of the respondents were male, 34 percent were black, and 62 percent were white with the remainder Hispanic and Native American. Sixty-one percent of the firearms organization respondents indicated that they were married, 26 percent single, 10 percent separated or divorced, and three percent widowed. Approximately 13 percent were college graduates, 35 percent were high school graduates that had some college, and 45 percent were high school graduates with no college. Three percent did not graduate high school and four percent held a graduate degree.

TABLE 4.1

## Sample Characteristics

<b>Gender</b>			
Male	58	<b>Marital Status</b>	
Female	42	Married	61
		Single	26
		Separated/Divorced	10
		Widowed	3
<b>Age (Years)</b>		<b>Education</b>	
≤ 25	13	Some High School	3
26-30	5	High School Graduate	45
31-40	35	High School Graduate With Some College	35
41-50	28	College Graduate	13
51-60	14	Some Graduate School	0
>61	5	Graduate Degree	4
<b>Race</b>		<b>Years With Organization</b>	
Black	34	≤ 5	44
Hispanic	2	6-10	22
White	62	11-15	25
Asian	0	16-20	7
Other	2	21-25	2
		≥ 26	0

Potential Non-Response Error

The lack of responses from elements in a sample may result in a non-response error (Churchill, 1999). A substantial difference between survey respondents and non-respondents is indicative of potential non-response error and may hamper the generalizability of the results (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). The presence of non-response error for the firearms distributor was estimated by comparing late respondents to the survey with early respondents to the survey. Table 4.2 presents the results of the analysis of variance tests for the study variables and demographic



factors. None of the study variables or demographic factors differed significantly between early and late respondents, so there does not appear to be a problem with non-

TABLE 4.2  
Comparison of Late and Early Respondents  
on Study and Demographic Variables

Variable	F	Sig. of F	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Voice	0.24	0.63	Early	5.53	0.99
			Late	5.44	1.03
Withdrawal Cognition	0.94	0.34	Early	2.29	1.50
			Late	2.79	1.56
Organizational Commitment	0.03	0.86	Early	4.54	0.90
			Late	4.31	0.86
Trust	0.14	0.72	Early	3.06	0.74
			Late	3.09	0.66
Perceived Organizational Support	2.73	0.10	Early	4.91	1.11
			Late	4.62	1.33
Trustworthiness	2.25	0.15	Early	3.77	0.70
			Late	3.48	0.80
Proactive Personality	0.98	0.32	Early	5.26	0.87
			Late	5.17	1.03
Age	1.06	0.31	Early	40.18	11.62
			Late	40.23	14.25
Years With Organization	0.37	0.54	Early	8.46	5.64
			Late	7.36	6.04
Education	0.32	0.57	Early	2.82	0.91
			Late	2.65	1.07

respondents. Additionally, the response rate of 82 percent reduces the likelihood of non-response bias as well as the potential of representativeness related issues.

### Reliability of Scales

Reliability is the extent to which a measure yields consistent results and is free from error (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1981). Established scales, each demonstrating acceptable psychometric properties from previous studies, were utilized in the study of the variables under investigation (Cook et al. 1981; Eisenberger et al. 1997; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Meyer et al. 1993; Parker & Sprigg, 1999; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In order to examine the reliability of the measures, coefficient alpha and item-to-total correlations were utilized. Nunnally (1978) notes that reliability coefficients of 0.70 and item-to-total correlations of 0.35 are sufficient for most research studies. Although one scale failed to meet the acceptable coefficient threshold, it was retained since the item-to-total correlations were above the acceptable minimum level of 0.35. Specifically, the trust scale produced an initial reliability of 0.64 when calculated using data from the firearms distributor. All of the items of the scale, however, met the item-to-total correlation with correlations above 0.35. As a result, the scale was retained. The results of reliability analysis for each scale utilized in the study is presented in Table 4.3.

### Correlations of Study Variables

Table 4.3 presents the summary statistics for the study variables. The results indicate that trust is positively correlated with both trustworthiness ( $r = 0.54$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and perceived organizational support ( $r = 0.45$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which provides initial support for hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2. Trust is positively correlated with voice behavior ( $r = 0.20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), providing initial support for hypothesis 3. Proactive personality is also positively correlated with voice behavior ( $r = 0.19$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), which

TABLE 4.3  
Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlation Coefficients

	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Voice	5.48	(0.90)						
2. Withdrawal Cognition	2.54	-0.09	(0.84)					
3. Organizational Commitment	4.68	0.18	-0.59 **	(0.86)				
4. Trust	3.07	0.20 *	-0.17	0.47 **	(0.64)			
5. Perceived Organizational Support	4.76	0.06	-0.53 **	0.77 **	0.45 **	(0.91)		
6. Trustworthiness	3.62	0.15	-0.34 **	0.56 **	0.54 **	0.69 **	(0.95)	
7. Proactive Personality	5.21	0.19 *	0.14	-0.11	0.01	-0.15	-0.16	(0.80)

Note: Scale reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

† Correlation is significant at the 0.10 level

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

provides initial support for hypothesis 4a. The results also provide initial support for hypothesis 5 as trust is positively correlated with organizational commitment ( $r = 0.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). However, organizational commitment is not correlated with voice behavior ( $r = 0.18$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), therefore hypothesis 6 is not supported. Finally, organizational commitment is negatively correlated with withdrawal cognitions ( $r = -0.59$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which provides some initial support for hypothesis 7.

The results presented in Table 4.3 also indicate that two relationships exhibit particularly strong relationships that merit some discussion. First, the results indicate that perceived organizational support and organizational commitment are very strongly correlated ( $r = 0.77$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Although the very strong correlation between POS and organizational commitment might suggest that these two variables may not be distinct, prior research has repeatedly found that these two variables are not only distinct but causally related (e.g., Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Of more concern in the present study is the strong correlation between POS and trustworthiness ( $r = 0.69$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ), which suggests that these two variables are closely related. This result, although not unexpected, indicates that additional analysis needs to be performed to assess the distinctiveness of these two antecedents of trust as well as the extent to which each makes a unique contribution to trust. The question regarding the distinctiveness of POS and trustworthiness will be addressed by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis. The question regarding the unique contributions that POS and trustworthiness make to the prediction of trust will be addressed by conducting a usefulness analysis.

### Adequacy of the Measurement Model

In order to assess the discriminant validity of the measures utilized in the study, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis. Using LISREL 8.5 to conduct the analysis, I tested a series of hierarchically nested models progressing from a single-factor model to the hypothesized seven-factor model. Due to the conceptual overlap between perceived organizational support and trustworthiness, an intermediate six-factor model was also tested in which both these variables shared the same factor. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.4. The results of the single factor model indicate that this model offers a poor fit to the data, which provides an indication that common methods

TABLE 4.4

#### Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Model	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2$	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA
1 Factor	1080	3925	-	3.63	0.16
6 Factor	1065	2532	1393**	2.38	0.12
7 Factor	1059	2059	473**	1.94	0.09

Note: The 6 factor model combines trustworthiness and perceived organizational support into one variable. The 7 factor model is the hypothesized model.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

variance is unlikely to offer an acceptable explanation for the data. A comparison of the six-factor model to the single-factor model indicates that the six-factor model

offers a statistically significant improvement in fit over the single-factor model ( $\Delta\chi^2 = 1393$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $df\ 15$ ). Similarly, a comparison of the six-factor model to the seven-factor model indicates that the seven-factor model offers a statistically significant improvement in fit over the six-factor model ( $\Delta\chi^2 = 473$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $df\ 6$ ). A comparison of the decrease in  $\chi^2/df$  from model to model provides additional evidence that the fit of each model improves with the additional factors. Based upon these comparisons, the hypothesized seven-factor model offers the best fit to the data. Further, the results of the comparison of the six-factor model to the seven-factor model indicate that, even though POS is highly correlated with trustworthiness perceived organizational support is distinct from trustworthiness. A closer look at the fit statistics for the seven-factor model reveals that the model fits the data within generally accepted guidelines. The chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio ( $\chi^2/df$ ) of 1.94 is below the three-to-one or two-to-one ratio that is generally accepted as an indication of acceptable fit (Carmines & McIver, 1981), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.09 did not exceed the 0.10 guideline (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Therefore, the results indicate not only that the seven-factor model offers the best fit with to the data, but also that the constraints placed upon the hypothesized measurement model do not result in a poor fitting model.

### Results of the Regression Analysis

Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , when it is false (Stevens, 1996). The power of a statistical test is related to the sample size,  $N$ , the significance level,  $\alpha$ , and the effect size,  $ES$ , such that each is a function of the other three (Cohen, 1992). Power was calculated for the hypotheses in accordance with the

methodology and tables developed by Cohen (1988). With 3 control predictors (gender, race, and age) and one additional independent variable based on the relationship under investigation; a significance level of 0.05; a sample size of 105; and the probability of finding a medium effect size of 0.15; post hoc power was determined to be .89 (Cohen, 1988). Since the power of a statistical test is the probability that it will lead to rejection of the null hypothesis (Cohen, 1988), it could be concluded that if a difference does exist, there is an 89 percent chance of detecting it statistically.

Table 4.5 presents the results of the regression analysis examining hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 states that individuals who experience high levels of trustworthiness

TABLE 4.5		
Results of Regression Analysis for Trust Hypothesis 1		
Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.08†
Gender	-0.19†	
Age	0.02	
Race	0.22*	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.27**
Trustworthiness	0.53**	
<b>Total <math>R^2</math></b>		0.35**
$\beta$ is standardized beta coefficient.		
† $p < 0.10$		
* $p < 0.05$		
** $p < 0.01$		

toward an individual will have high levels of trust toward that individual. The results indicate that, controlling for gender, race, and age, trustworthiness is positively related to trust ( $\beta = 0.53$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

Table 4.6 presents the results of the regression analysis examining hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 states that individuals with high levels of perceived organizational support will experience high levels of trust. As before, the control variables were entered in step 1 of the regression while perceived organizational support was entered in step 2. This hypothesis was also supported, with POS positively and significantly ( $\beta = 0.45$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) related to trust.

Based upon the support found for hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2, the conceptual overlap of perceived organizational support and trustworthiness, and a

TABLE 4.6

Results of Regression Analysis for Trust  
Hypothesis 2

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.08 †
Gender	-0.19 †	
Age	0.02	
Race	0.22 *	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.17 **
Perceived Organizational Support	0.45 **	
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.25 **

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$



strong correlation between the two variables, a usefulness analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which these two variables make unique contributions to the dependent variable trust. Results of the analysis indicate that trustworthiness accounts for a significant amount of additional variance in trust over that accounted for by perceived organizational support ( $R^2_{\text{POS}} = 0.25$ ;  $R^2_{\text{POS} + \text{Trustworthiness}} = 0.35$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = 0.10$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). However, when the order of entry was reversed, perceived organizational support did not account for a statistically significant amount of incremental variance in trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness ( $R^2_{\text{Trustworthiness}} = 0.34$ ;  $R^2_{\text{Trustworthiness} + \text{POS}} = 0.35$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.30$ ). (Therefore, the results indicate that POS does not account for any appreciable amount of unique variance in trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness.)

Table 4.7 presents the results of the regression analysis examining hypothesis 3, which states that individuals with high levels of trust toward others will express high levels of voice toward those individuals. With the control variables entered in step 1 and trust entered in step 2, results of the regression showed a positive relationship ( $\beta = 0.19$ ,  $p < 0.10$ ) between the variables under investigation. However, in terms of incremental variance the overall equation was not significant so the hypothesis was not supported.

A mediator is a third variable through which the focal independent variable influences the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As such, the trust and voice relationship was investigated for a mediating effect of organizational commitment. An assumption of testing for a mediating influence is the existence of significant relationships among the three variables under investigation (Howell, 2002). While

both voice and organizational commitment were found to have significant positive relationships with trust ( $r = 0.20$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ;  $r = 0.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$  respectively), the relationship between voice and organizational commitment was not significant ( $r = 0.18$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ), thereby violating the condition of mediation. As a result, organizational commitment was not found to have a mediating influence on the trust and voice relationship.

TABLE 4.7  
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice  
Hypothesis 3

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.02
Gender	-0.02	
Age	-0.05	
Race	0.13	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.03†
Trust	0.19†	
<b>Total <math>R^2</math></b>		0.05

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Table 4.8 provides information on the hierarchical regression examining hypothesis 4a, which suggests that higher levels of proactive personality will be related to higher levels of voice. Although the results indicate that proactive personality is positively related to voice ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), the overall equation was not found to be significant, therefore the hypothesis was not supported.

TABLE 4.8  
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice  
Hypothesis 4a

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.02
Gender	-0.02	
Age	-0.05	
Race	0.13	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.04*
Proactive Personality	0.23*	
<b>Total <math>R^2</math></b>		0.06

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Table 4.9 provides the results pertaining to hypothesis 4b which states that proactive personality will moderate the relationship between trust and voice. Neither trust ( $\beta = 0.18$ ,  $p = 0.09$ ), nor the trust and proactive personality interaction ( $\beta = -0.14$ ,  $p = 0.18$ ) reached statistical significance. Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between voice and trust.

The results of the regression analysis examining hypothesis 5 are presented in Table 4.10. It was hypothesized that individuals who have high levels of trust will experience more organizational commitment than other individuals. After controlling for age, gender, and race, organizational commitment was positively related to trust ( $\beta = 0.44$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which provides support for hypothesis 5.

TABLE 4.9

Results of Regression Analysis for Voice  
Hypothesis 4b

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.02
Gender	-0.02	
Age	-0.05	
Race	0.13	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.07*
Trust	0.18†	
Proactive Personality	0.22*	
<b>Step 3: Interaction Effects</b>		0.02
Trust X Proactive Personality	-0.14	
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.11

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

TABLE 4.10

Results of Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment  
Hypothesis 5

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.15**
Gender	-0.08	
Age	0.34**	
Race	0.16	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.18**
Trust	0.44**	
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.33**

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

The mediating influence of trust on the perceived organizational support and organizational commitment relationship was also investigated. The results of this investigation are presented in Table 4.11. In testing for mediation, the control variables were entered in step 1, followed by the direct path relationship of perceived organizational support and organizational commitment in step 2. Finally, trust was entered in step 3 of the regression. Although the results indicate that there is a decrease in the size of the beta coefficient for the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment, the relationship remains statistically significant, which indicates that trust may present at least a partial mediating influence. Further analysis using the information provided by Howell (2002) revealed that the drop in beta coefficient was statistically significant ( $z = 2.01$ ) at the 0.05 level, indicating that trust partially mediates the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment.

The extent to which trust mediates the relationship between trustworthiness and organizational commitment relationship was also investigated. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.12. As before, the control variables were entered in step 1, followed by the direct path relationship of trustworthiness and organizational commitment in step 2. Trust was entered in step 3. Although the relationship between trustworthiness and organizational commitment remains statistically significant, the Beta coefficient was reduced in step 3 of the regression. An examination of the data suggests that the decrease in the beta coefficient was significant at the 0.05 level ( $z = 2.22$ ), which provides an indication that the relationship between trustworthiness and organizational commitment is indeed partially mediated by trust.

TABLE 4.11

Results of Regression Analysis for  
Organizational Commitment

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>			
Gender	-0.08	0.00	0.03
Age	0.34**	0.13†	0.14*
Race	0.16	0.05	0.03
<b>Step 2: Antecedent Variables</b>			
POS		0.72**	0.65**
<b>Step 3: Mediator Variable</b>			
Trust			0.17*
$\Delta R^2$	0.15**	0.46**	0.02*
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>0.15**</b>	<b>0.61**</b>	<b>0.63**</b>

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

TABLE 4.12

Results of Regression Analysis for  
Organizational Commitment

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>			
Gender	-0.08	-0.05	-0.02
Age	0.34**	0.26	0.27*
Race	0.16	0.12	0.08
<b>Step 2: Antecedent Variables</b>			
Trustworthiness		0.50**	0.37**
<b>Step 3: Mediator Variable</b>			
Trust			0.24*
$\Delta R^2$	0.15**	0.24**	0.04*
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>0.15**</b>	<b>0.39**</b>	<b>0.43**</b>

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

The results of the regression analysis examining hypothesis 6 are presented in Table 4.13. Hypothesis 6 states that individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will exhibit high levels of voice. In performing the correlation analysis, it was found that only a slight correlation existed between organizational commitment and voice. The results of the regression analysis confirmed that only a modest level of significance was found for the voice and organizational commitment relationship. However, the overall regression equation did not account for a statistically significant amount of variance in voice. Therefore, the results do not support hypothesis 6.

TABLE 4.13  
Results of Regression Analysis for Voice  
Hypothesis 6

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.02
Gender	-0.02	
Age	-0.05	
Race	0.13	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.04†
Organizational Commitment	0.21†	
<b>Total <math>R^2</math></b>		0.06

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Hypothesis 7 states that individuals who have high levels of organizational commitment will experience less withdrawal cognition than other individuals. Table

4.14 shows the results of the hierarchical regression. As hypothesized, the results indicate that organizational commitment is negatively related to respondents' withdrawal cognitions ( $\beta = -0.52$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

TABLE 4.14

Results of Regression Analysis for  
Withdrawal Cognition – Hypothesis 7

Independent Variables	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
<b>Step 1: Control Variables</b>		0.16**
Gender	-0.00	
Age	-0.37**	
Race	-0.11	
<b>Step 2: Main Effects</b>		0.23**
Organizational Commitment	-0.52**	
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup></b>		0.39**

$\beta$  is standardized beta coefficient.

†  $p < 0.10$

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

In order to fully investigate the organizational commitment and the withdrawal cognition relationship, the potential for organizational commitment acting as a mediator in the trust and withdrawal cognition relationship was explored. As noted earlier, an assumption of testing for a mediating influence is the existence of significant relationships between the independent variable, dependent variable, and mediator (Howell, 2002). While trust was found to have a significant and positive correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = 0.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and organizational commitment had a significant and negative correlation with withdrawal cognition ( $r =$



-0.59,  $p < 0.01$ ), trust was not significantly correlated with withdrawal cognition, thereby violating the condition of mediation. As a result, organizational commitment was not found to have a mediating influence on the trust and the withdrawal cognition relationship.

### Chapter Summary

Sample characteristics and the potential for non-response bias were examined in Chapter 4. Early and late respondents within the firearms distribution company were compared to ensure that late respondents and, therefore, non-respondents did not differ significantly in their responses. No significant differences were found between the early and late responders for the organization. The reliabilities of the scales were then discussed, followed by significant correlations of the scales. One scale was found to be below the acceptable limit of reliability, although the item-to-total correlations were satisfactory. Since the scale has been found to have acceptable prior use and the item-to-total correlations were above the generally accepted minimum level, the scale was retained. This section was followed by results of the hypotheses testing using the data from the firearms distributor.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses the results presented in Chapter 4. The implications for managers will be discussed as well as the limitations of the study. Drawing upon the insights gained from the present study, suggestions for future research will also be presented.

#### Research Findings

This section presents the results of the study. The findings are grouped according to the relationships between variables.

#### Antecedents of Trust

The results of the analyses examining the two antecedents of trust contribute to the literature in several ways. First, although both trustworthiness and perceived organizational support were found to have positive correlations with trust, subsequent analysis indicates that perceived organizational support does not account for any substantial amount of variance in trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness. These results contribute to the literature by illustrating a critical shortcoming of current social exchange approaches to predicting trust.

According to a trust theory perspective, POS does not capture all of the important elements that individuals consider with regard to the trustworthiness of the organization. Trustworthiness is thought to be comprised of three basic components: benevolence, integrity, and ability. Prior research has suggested that support perceptions capture only the benevolence and integrity components of trustworthiness (Fuller & Hester, 2001). Ability, or competence, has been conceptualized as an essential and antecedent element of trust (Good, 1988). For example, research indicates that supervisor competence is an important predictor of trustworthiness (Schoorman et al. 1996). Thus, to the extent that ability plays an important role in the overall evaluation of organizational trustworthiness, POS is unlikely to account for any unique variance in trust beyond that accounted for by trustworthiness. The results of this study suggest that evaluations of organizational ability or competence play an important role in the development of trust in the organization.

The results further suggest that a social exchange approach to predicting trust in the organization may be enhanced by incorporating elements of economic exchange. This contention is consistent with Fuller and Hester's (2001) finding that an assessment of the ability of the union to increase benefits and improve working conditions made a unique contribution to union commitment beyond that made by support perceptions. This suggests that both social exchange and economic exchange are likely to be necessary to more fully account for trust. Note that this is parallel to McAllister's (1995) notion that both cognitive trust and the more personal, emotionally-based affective trust contribute to trust-related outcomes.

### Trust, Voice, and Proactive Personality

One of the primary purposes of the present study is to examine the relationship between trust and voice behavior. Consistent with Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust, trust should be positively related to risk taking in the relationship. Given that voice is a constructive yet challenging behavior, it is consistent with the risk taking element of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust. Although trust was found to be positively correlated with voice behavior, subsequent analysis controlling for several demographic influences does not support a positive relationship between trust and voice. This finding is not consistent with Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust and suggests that, by itself, trust in the organization may not be sufficient to promote challenging behavior.

It was also hypothesized that proactive personality would be positively related with voice behavior. Although proactive personality was found to be positively correlated with voice behavior, subsequent regression analysis indicated that when controlling for demographic factors, the positive correlation is reduced to a point where the relationship is not statistically significant. Therefore, the results indicate that there is no appreciable relationship between proactive personality and voice behavior. This finding is not consistent with the theoretical foundation of the proactive personality construct, which describes proactive individuals as being disposed toward positive change. Further, the results of the present study provide evidence that, at least in some situations, even in those individuals predisposed to engage proactive behavior are constrained from doing so.

According to Hypothesis 4b, the relationship between trust and voice should be moderated by proactive personality. This hypothesis is consistent with Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust, which indicates that the relationship between trust and risk taking should be moderated by perceived risk. It was thought that while the level of trust in the organization would make little difference to proactive individuals, it might have a significant impact upon passive individuals, such that the relationship between trust and voice would be greater for passive individuals than for proactive individuals. The results indicate that proactive personality does not moderate the relationship between trust and voice behavior. This finding is also not consistent with suggestions made in previous research that favorable contextual factors, such as trust, would enhance the relationship between individual difference variables and voice behavior (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998).

#### Trust, Voice, and Organizational Commitment

The fourth type of model examined in the present study was a mediator model. That is, I examined the possibility that trust might be related to voice only to the extent that it influences organizational commitment. A mediator shows how or why certain effects occur and is a third variable through which the independent variable affects the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For a variable to function as a mediator, a significant relationship must first exist between the independent variable and the mediator, the mediator and the dependent variable, and the independent and dependent variables. With organizational commitment offering possible mediating interaction between the trust and voice variables, an analysis was conducted to determine possible mediating effects. Several steps must be affirmed prior to the claim of mediation.

Initially, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, as well as the relationships between the proposed mediator and the independent and dependent variables must be significant (Howell, 2002). While the correlations between trust and voice, and trust and organizational commitment, met the necessary condition, the organizational commitment and voice relationship did not. As a result, mediation cannot be considered. Thus, it appears that trust is not even distally related to voice behavior due to its impact upon organizational commitment. This result is somewhat consistent with prior research. Some studies did find positive correlations between voice and loyalty (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2002; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985), with loyalty described as the degree to which a person identifies with an organization (Boroff & Lewin, 1997). This definition is similar to that of organizational commitment, the relative strength of an individual's involvement in and identification with an organization (Bartlett, 2001; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Since the definitions of loyalty and organizational commitment are analogous, and a positive relationship was found between voice and loyalty, it was believed that a positive correlation between voice and organizational commitment would be found. Farrell (1983) also noted that voice is likely when members of an organization have significant involvement in that organization. The hypothesis was not supported, however. While in contradiction to the previously noted studies, the results are more akin to the findings of Boroff and Lewin (1997) who noted that voice was less likely to be utilized by respondents with high levels of loyalty to the organization. In their research of a large manufacturing firm based in the U.S., union employees who reported being treated unfairly by the employer at some time during their employment were found to

produce negative correlations between loyalty and the exercise of voice. The researchers interpreted these findings as indicative of employees who, loyal to the organization, choose to suffer in silence rather than exercise their use of voice in the workplace.

### Organizational Commitment and Withdrawal Cognition

Prior research supported the negative correlation between organizational commitment and actual turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter et al. 1974; Steers, 1977). Since the withdrawal cognition action of intention to quit is viewed as the precursor to actual turnover, it was expected that a negative relationship would be found between organizational commitment and the withdrawal cognition action of intention to quit. Others have found a negative correlation between organizational commitment and actual turnover (Bishop et al. 2000; Guzzo et al. 1994; Steers, 1977). As was expected, the hypothesized relationship between organizational commitment and withdrawal cognition, based on firearms dealer respondents, was supported.

In order to more fully assess the potential forces in this model that may impact the withdrawal cognition, an analysis was conducted to determine if organizational commitment might act as a mediator to the trust and withdrawal cognition relationship. Although significant relationships between organizational commitment and trust as well as withdrawal cognition and organizational commitment were found, no significant relationship was found between the dependent variable, withdrawal cognition, and the independent variable, trust. As a result, the possibility of any mediating influence was eliminated.

### Trustworthiness, Trust, and Organizational Commitment

Trustworthiness, comprised of ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al. 1995), has been associated with increased trust as well as cooperation (Williams, 2001). To fully examine the trustworthiness and organizational commitment relationship, trust was introduced as a potential mediator to the relationship. As noted earlier, a condition of mediation is that significant relationships exist between the variables. Since data were found to support that condition, hierarchical regression was utilized to conduct the analysis. With the control variables of age, gender, and race entered, the direct path of trustworthiness and organizational commitment was entered followed by the proposed mediator, trust, in step 3. The beta coefficient was reduced from step 2 to step 3 and remained significant providing evidence of a mediating effect. Information provided by Howell (2002) was utilized to investigate the relationship further. As the relationship was significant at the 0.05 level ( $z = 2.22$ ), it could be concluded that trust does mediate the relationship between trustworthiness and organizational commitment.

### Managerial Implications

Previous research has established the influence of trust in the workplace (e.g. Oldham, 1975; Rich, 1997). This dissertation provides managerial implications by first highlighting the trust, organizational commitment, and withdrawal cognition relationship. With a positive and significant relationship between trust and organizational commitment established, and a positive and significant relationship between organizational commitment and withdrawal cognition established, the



importance of trust within an organization takes on practical significance. Also, with the antecedents to trust, perceived organizational support and trustworthiness, shown as significant predictors of trust, this dissertation provides managers with specific areas of concentration for the development of trust in the workplace.

With this knowledge, managers can focus on the conditions that will enhance perceived organizational support as well as trustworthiness. Feedback, for example, has been found to be strongly related to POS (Allen, 1995). If not already in place, managers can implement formal feedback procedures to ensure that employees receive periodic updates on their performance, thus aiding in the development of perceived organizational support. Communication from top management also appears to be positively related to the formation of perceived organizational support (Amason & Allen, 1997). Those in management positions could open channels of communication and provide information on the goals and values of the organization, employment practices, as well as issues regarding the security of jobs within the organization, all found to be relevant to fostering POS (Allen, 1992). From the perspective of improving trustworthiness, higher level management could take steps necessary to ensure that supervisors possess the skills and competencies required for their positions. This ability to perform positively impacts the subordinate's trust in a leader (Jones et al. 1975).

Perhaps the most important managerial implication that can be drawn from the results of this study is that eliciting voice behavior may be more difficult than previously presented in the extant literature. The present study examined the individual and joint effects of two variables that have been purported to promote

proactive behavior in organizations, and found that none of the four different types of models provided an adequate model that predicted voice behavior—even in limited situations. While positive correlations were noted, in terms of incremental variance the overall regression equations for trust and voice as well as proactive personality and voice were not significant. Similarly, proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between trust and voice. Organizational commitment was found to not have a significant relationship with voice so potential mediating effects between voice and trust were not considered. As a result, managers may need to carefully reflect on the possible antecedents of voice in their organizations in order to more fully understand the development of the voice behavior.

### Limitations of the Study

This study is subject to several limitations. First, the results were derived from one organization in the southern United States. While this organization encompassed a variety of job titles and skill sets, the results may not be generalizable to other types of organizations or other geographic areas. Trust, its antecedents and consequences, may vary from one region of the country to another and by the type and nature of the industry and organization. An organization operating from widely dispersed offices, for example, may offer different results based on the employees' perception of the supervisor's trustworthiness, particularly if the contact with the supervisor is of a limited nature.

As noted previously, the trust scale produced an initial reliability of 0.64 when calculated using data from the firearms distributor. The scale was utilized in this study

due to satisfactory item-to-total correlations and its use in previous research. It is possible, however, that the low overall reliability of the scale produced skewed results.

Another potential limitation of this study may be related to the characteristics of the sample. Forty-four percent of the respondents had been employed by the organization for 5 or fewer years. While Gabarro (1978, 1979) noted that relationships that lasted more than eighteen months became stable with little subsequent change in levels of trust, the relatively low organizational tenure and associated turnover may limit the development of trust in this organization.

The use of cross-sectional data precludes any inference of causality between the variables included in this study. While useful for revealing associations between variables at a particular point in time, the nature of the data do not allow for interpretation of causality. For example, it is possible that trust leads to the use of voice, in that expressions of voice with no recriminations lead to higher levels of trust. Alternately, higher levels of trust may lead one to feel more comfortable in the use of voice thereby leading to higher levels of voice expression.

### Contributions of the Study

This dissertation makes several significant contributions to the study of trust within organizations. First, this dissertation examines the relationship between voice, organizational commitment, trust, and proactive personality. Researchers have argued that more research is needed identifying the antecedents and consequences of voice behavior (Avery & Quinones, 2002; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). By examining these variables, this dissertation provides empirical tests of the relationships and contributes to the existing literature on voice. For example, voice was found to have significant

positive correlations with trust. Although the investigation into the relationships between voice, trust, proactive personality, and organizational commitment did not reach statistical significance, it nonetheless added another facet to the existing literature. This study differentiates between perceived organizational support and trustworthiness conceptually and empirically. A usefulness analysis found that perceived organizational support does not contribute to the prediction of trust beyond trustworthiness. If perceived organizational support is to approach the usefulness of trustworthiness in accounting for an individual's trust, social exchange models examining trust need to account for the ability of the organization to provide support to the employee in the course of his or her job.

Studies have examined various aspects of organizational commitment (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), trust (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Laschinger et al. 2001), perceived organizational support (e.g. Armeli et al. 1998; Eisenberger et al. 2001), trustworthiness (e.g. Mayer et al. 1995; Williams, 2001), and voice (e.g. Batt et al. 2002; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). With an increase of diversity in the workplace, the use of workteams, and the empowerment of workers, trust is becoming an essential element for effective collaboration in organizations (Mayer et al. 1995). This dissertation uses established scales that have been used in a variety of work settings and provides an integrated framework that allows for the examination of these variables in a single model.

### Suggestions for Future Research

While this study has investigated perceived organizational support and trustworthiness, antecedents of trust, additional empirical studies are needed to expand

our knowledge of these and other potential antecedents, particularly trustworthiness. A number of variables have been shown to affect the development of POS, including communications within the organization, pay system satisfaction, and job discretion exercised by agents of the organization. Research into the development of trustworthiness, however, has not been as extensive. Future research could utilize the variables associated with POS to determine if they aid in the development of benevolence and integrity, components of trustworthiness. Subsequent research could then investigate other potential variables all with the goal of providing additional insight into the development of trust.

While the utilization of one organization was advantageous for control purposes, the generalizability of the results may be limited. As a result, the examination of organizations in other industries, including those operating out of a centralized location versus those with multiple offices, may provide additional insight into the role of trust in an organizational setting. Also, by including organizations in different geographic regions, differences may be detected based on regional beliefs.

## APPENDIX A

### SUPERVISOR COVER LETTER

Kyle Ristig  
P.O. Box 996  
Benton, Louisiana 71006

Dear Sir/Madam:

As part of my graduate degree requirements, I am conducting a study on the causes and consequences of trust within the workplace and need your help in completing this work. As a supervisor, I am in particular need of your assistance. Attached is a questionnaire that contains statements related to areas such as trust, organizational support, and organizational commitment and a second questionnaire that has statements related to an employee's "voice." While the first questionnaire is related to how you feel, the second questionnaire describes the personnel that work for you. Please provide responses to the six questions for each employee that works for you. While I realize that you are faced with many demands during your day, the questionnaires can be completed in a relatively short period of time. Your participation will not only help me in completing my degree requirements but aid researchers in understanding the role of trust in organizational behavior.

As an incentive to complete the surveys and return them within one week, for all fully completed questionnaires returned, a random drawing will be held for 4 cash awards of \$25 each. In order to identify you for the drawing, please print your name at the bottom of this letter.

An addressed envelope is provided for your convenience. After you have completed the questionnaire and printed your name at the bottom of this form, please place all documents in the envelope and return them to me. After I receive the envelopes, the questionnaires and participation form will be placed in separate files and the drawings will be held. Your name will not be linked to your responses and all information is confidential.

If you have questions related to this research, you can contact me at 318-965-5106 or via e-mail at. Thanks for your help.

Sincerely,

Kyle Ristig

---

Print Name of Participant

## APPENDIX B

### EMPLOYEE COVER LETTER



Kyle Ristig  
P.O. Box 996  
Benton, Louisiana 71006

Dear Sir/Madam:

As part of my graduate degree requirements, I am conducting a study on the causes and consequences of trust within the workplace and need your help in completing this work. Attached is a questionnaire that contains statements related to areas such as trust, organizational support, and organizational commitment. While I realize that you are faced with many demands during your day, the questionnaire can be completed in a relatively short period of time. Your participation will not only help me in completing my degree requirements but aid in understanding the role of trust in organizational behavior.

As an incentive to complete the survey within one week, for all fully completed questionnaires returned, a random drawing will be held for 4 cash awards of \$25 each. In order to identify you for the drawing, please print your name at the bottom of this letter.

An addressed envelope is provided for your convenience. After you have completed the questionnaire and printed your name at the bottom of this form, please place both documents in the envelope and return the envelope to me. After I receive the envelopes, the questionnaire and participation form will be placed in separate files and the drawing will be held. Your name will not be linked to your responses and all information is confidential.

If you have questions related to this research, you can contact me at 318-965-5106 or via e-mail at <mailto:kyle@shreve.net>. Thanks for your help.

Sincerely,

Kyle Ristig

---

Print Name of Participant

## APPENDIX C

### EMPLOYEE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

☐ By checking this box, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the description of the study titled "An Empirical Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Trust Within Organizations" and its purpose and method. I further understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary, my responses are confidential, and that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer questions without penalty.

Think about your company's management, specifically your immediate supervisor or manager. For each statement, mark the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree or Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
_____	1.	Management is very capable of performing its job.		
_____	2.	Management is known to be successful at the things it tries to do.		
_____	3.	Management has much knowledge about the work that needs done.		
_____	4.	I feel very confident about management's skills.		
_____	5.	Management has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.		
_____	6.	Management is well qualified.		
_____	7.	Management is very concerned about my welfare.		
_____	8.	My needs and desires are very important to management.		
_____	9.	Management would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.		
_____	10.	Management really looks out for what is important to me.		
_____	11.	Management will go out of its way to help me.		
_____	12.	Management has a strong sense of justice.		
_____	13.	I never have to wonder whether management will stick to its word.		
_____	14.	Management tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.		
_____	15.	Management's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.		
_____	16.	I like management's values.		
_____	17.	Sound principles seem to guide management's behavior.		
_____	18.	If I had my way, I wouldn't let management have any influence over issues that me.		
_____	19.	I would be willing to let management have complete control over my future in the company.		

(Continued)

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neither Agree or Disagree 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
_____ 20.	I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on management.			
_____ 21.	I would be comfortable giving management a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor their actions.			

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
_____ 22.	My organization strongly considers my goals and values.					
_____ 23.	Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.					
_____ 24.	My organization really cares about my well being.					
_____ 25.	My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.					
_____ 26.	My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.					
_____ 27.	If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.					
_____ 28.	My organization shows very little concern for me.					
_____ 29.	My organization cares about my opinions.					
_____ 30.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
_____ 31.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
_____ 32.	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.					
_____ 33.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.					
_____ 34.	I do not feel "part of the family" at my organization.					
_____ 35.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
_____ 36.	How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?					
_____ 37.	I often think about quitting.					
_____ 38.	I will probably look for a new job in the next year.					
_____ 39.	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.					
_____ 40.	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.					
_____ 41.	I am excellent at identifying opportunities.					
_____ 42.	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.					

(Continued)

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Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years

Race: ☐ Black ☐ Hispanic ☐ White ☐ Asian ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

Marital Status: ☐ Married ☐ Single ☐ Separated/Divorced ☐ Widowed

Education: ☐ Some High School ☐ High School Graduate ☐ Some College  
☐ College Graduate ☐ Some Graduate School ☐ Graduate Degree

Job Title: \_\_\_\_\_

Years with Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

Please place this survey in the envelope and return it to the researcher.

***THANKS FOR YOUR HELP!***

## APPENDIX D

### SUPERVISOR RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

### An Empirical Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Trust Within Organizations

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between trust and its antecedents (the conditions that create trust) and consequences (the results of trust). By completing this survey, you will be helping the researchers understand how trust and these related factors impact the workplace. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

- ☐ By checking this box, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the description of the study titled "An Empirical Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Trust Within Organizations" and its purpose and method. I further understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary, my responses are confidential, and that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer questions without penalty.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Please consider each question carefully and answer to the best of your ability. There are no right or wrong answers and your responses are confidential.

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement for each employee you supervise.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

(Continued)

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	--------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
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- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.



(Continued)

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	--------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

(Continued)

Using the following scale, please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	--------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Employee Name: \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Please provide the following demographic information on yourself. You need to provide this data only once. All responses are confidential. Thank you.

Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years

Race: ☐ Black ☐ Hispanic ☐ White ☐ Asian ☐ Other \_\_\_\_\_

Marital Status: ☐ Married ☐ Single ☐ Separated/Divorced ☐ Widowed

Education: ☐ Some High School ☐ High School Graduate ☐ Some College  
☐ College Graduate ☐ Some Graduate School ☐ Graduate Degree

Job Title: \_\_\_\_\_ Years with Organization: \_\_\_\_\_

When you have completed the questions for all employees you supervise, please place this survey in the envelope and return it to the researcher. **THANKS FOR YOUR HELP!**

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